THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1803.

ART. I. *A Tour, performed in the Years* 1795-6, *through the Taurida, or Crimea*, the antient Kingdom of Bosphorus, the once-powerful Republic of Tauric Cherson, and all the other Countries on the North Shore of the Euxine, ceded to Russia by the Peace of Kainardgi and Jassy. By Mrs. Maria Guthrie, formerly Acting Directress of the Imperial Convent for the Education of the Female Nobility of Russia. Described in a Series of Letters to her Husband, the Editor, Matthew Guthrie, M.D. F.R.S. and F.S.A. of London and Edinburgh, Member of the Philosophical Society of Manchester, &c. &c. Physician to the First and Second Imperial Corps of Noble Cadets in St. Petersburgh, and Councillor of State to His Imperial Majesty of all the Russias. The Whole illustrated by a Map of the Tour along the Euxine Coast, from the Dniester to the Cuban; with Engravings of a great Number of Antient Coins, Medals, Monuments, Inscriptions, and other curious Objects. 4to. pp. 446. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

DR. Guthrie informs us that these letters were addressed to him in French, that he has translated them into English, and that he has added the notices relative to antient history, &c.: but he is not therefore warranted in considering himself as the sole object of criticism; since his share of responsibility is necessarily limited to the language, to the supplementary insertions, and to the duties of an editor. There is no occasion, however, for any apprehension on this score. If his lady (who is now an inmate of the silent grave) had executed her part of this joint performance with less success than she has done, we should have treated her with particular tenderness; for she professes to have recorded all her observations just as they arose, good, bad, and indifferent, merely for the amusement of her own family and friends. To Dr. G. we are obliged for having given them a wider range.

The first three letters from *Nicolayef*, on the Bog, are, like all that follow, without any date of time; an omission for which it is not easy to conjecture a sufficient reason, and for which none has been assigned.—Nicolayef, a new naval esta-

blishment, is represented as consisting of about 600 houses, forming eight long and broad streets, which intersect one another at right angles. The suburbs include 200 cottages and *semblankies*, or subterraneous dwellings, occupied by soldiers, sailors, and workmen. Though the town was founded only in 1789, the population, when Mrs. G. wrote, had amounted to 10,000 inhabitants of all descriptions. Notwithstanding some disadvantages of situation, it is preferred to Cherson as a dock-yard.

The indurated calcareous soil of the Scythian stept, or desert, produces grass, but will require to be subdued, watered, and guarded from the licence of the roaming shepherds, before its boundless monotony can be relieved by the trees of the forest.

A visit to *Ovidopol* naturally suggested a description and drawing of a curious antique tomb, *ingeniously*, though (as we learn in the appendix) *erroneously* supposed to be that of Ovid. Proceeding eastward, along the coast of the Euxine, the fair traveller notices *Odessa*, another sea-port, rising under the imperial auspices, and destined for the reception of the Russian flotilla. This town is constructed of the same beautiful calcareous stone which abounds at Nicolayef. The writer's mind is again filled with Ovid, his exile, and his *Tristia*, on crossing the rivulets *Adjelik* and *Deligul*,—according to Peyssonnel, the *Benius* and *Lycus* of the amorous bard.—*Ochakoff*, the *Odessus* of antiquity, recalls the story of Anacharsis, as related in the 4th book of Herodotus.

In the ninth letter, we have this account of *Cherson:*

'You will perceive, by the date of this letter, how far I am on my way to the famous Crimea, or Taurida, so long the object of my curiosity, and, indeed, one of the principal motives to my journey, after the great and leading one of the re-establishment of my health. I must own, my good friend, after feeling the advantage that I have already derived from this Southern Tour, I am not surprised that the ladies of antiquity ran after Apollo; for I frankly confess, (and I hope you will not be jealous,) that I follow him with pleasure, and do not intend soon to quit the pursuit.—Surely living so many years as we have done amid the snows of the North, is a good excuse for this heathenish taste.

'The new Russian Cherson, where we now are, is situated, as you know, at a great distance from the old Grecian city of that name in the Taurida, on the right bank of the Dnieper, or Borysthenes, about 15 versts above its mouth, and 10 below where the Inguletz falls into it. It is a handsome town, with a number of fine public buildings, docks, magazines, &c. and a port well frequented by ships trading this way.

'The untimely fate of the able engineer (Brigadier General Korsakoff) to whose zeal and talents Cherson owes the most of its for-

tifications and other public works, is still fresh in the minds of the inhabitants, who bewail his loss: he was killed by falling over a precipice in a dark night, and thereby cut short in a brilliant career, at an early period of life.

'This city is, however, rendered still more memorable, as containing all that was mortal of the philanthropic Howard, who ended here his extraordinary progress, together with a long life passed in continued acts of humanity and beneficence, which did much honour to himself, while they threw a lustre on his native country, England. Many will envy the worthy Admiral Mordwinoff the honour of having erected a monument to the memory of this friend of mankind, and the satisfaction of engraving on his tomb, *Here lies the benevolent Howard.*—Here he fell a martyr to the same putrid fever which he had banished from so many prisons in Great Britain and Ireland, while on his way to Turkey, whither his exalted courage in the cause of suffering humanity was leading him, to combat prejudice and the plague, the two most formidable enemies of man. Happy would it be for the world, if British eccentricity often took so useful a turn!

'Till very lately, as was observed in my Letter from Nicolayef, this city was the seat of naval architecture for the Euxine, and the residence of a great number of men belonging to the naval establishment; but it was found so very unhealthy in the months of July and August, during the prevalence of a pestiferous wind, which comes charged with *putrid miasma*, generated by the great heats in the low grounds to the left of the Dnieper, which are regularly overflowed every spring, when the river is swelled with melted snow and ice; I say, it was found so unhealthy at this season, that the loss in men became a national object, even independent of considerations of humanity; and it was abandoned for Nicolayef; yet not entirely, as the docks are still left for building ships, where two of 74 * are now on the stocks. The necessary garrison is likewise left; and, as the profits of trade are considerable, I scarcely need add, that the unhealthy Cherson is not abandoned by the merchants, who, we see, brave all climates, and all extremes of temperature, where profit invites; but, indeed, those very gains enable them to evade the fatal blast, by quitting the city during its baneful influence, and leaving their seasoned clerks to transact the business. The heat is quite insupportable, in the day-time, for two or three months of the year, while the evenings and nights are remarkably cool: an extraordinary phenomenon, which certainly assists the putrid miasma in producing that fatal remittent of this country which laid the all-powerful Prince Potemkin in the dust, with so many thousands of the army that he commanded, and much more terrible to Russia than the Turkish cimeter, which her cannon and boigenetes keep at a distance.

'* The whole Russian navy of the Euxine was built at Cherson, except one ship of 90 guns at Nicolayef, and some frigates at Taganrok on the Mæotis: the rest are Turkish prizes.'

'It is about 150 versts higher up this river, that Her Imperial Majesty has planted a small French colony of Emigrant nobility; but I am afraid, that, although the banks of the Borysthenes still preserve the fertility for which they were noted in days of yore, they are equally subject, from the same cause, to the fatal remittent fever which depopulates Cherson; and that the unhappy gentlemen who fled hither from death and destruction at home, will meet it, with equal certainty, in the Wilds of Scythia *, unless you indicate to them some preservation against the threatening evil; which would be an act of great humanity, and much oblige Yours, &c.'

The route along the Dnieper to *Bereslave*, the *Trajectus Crassi* of the antients, is mostly solitary and dismal. Mrs. G. thus accounts for the frequent appearance of conic tumuli on the Tartaric plains:

'Some people contend that they are not tombs, but hillocks formed by the ashes thrown out of the Tartar tents while encamped on the spot; which is a fact, and a very wise measure too, as, by making the graves of their companions the bases of these conic hillocks, they prevent putrid exhalations, while they raise a rude monument to departed friends without either trouble or expence: a practice of the most remote antiquity, and which may very probably be the origin of the conic form which their tombs preserved in all the parts of Europe, &c. whither conquest and emigration led the swarms from Tartary recorded by so many authors: even those who have embraced the religion of Mahomet preserve this ancient usage, as walking over the grave of a Musselman is a species of profanation, and a little mount of earth is always raised on it, to prevent such an accident, even out of the deserts of Scythia, although I suspect that the custom took its origin there.'

Directing her steps across the deserts of the Nogay Tartars, where not a single object presents itself to cheer the wearied eye, or revive the drooping spirits, Mrs. G. made her next halt at *Pérécop*.

As the 15th letter presents a striking sketch of the geography of the Crimea, we shall insert it entire:

'The Taurida lies between 44° 17′ and 46° 7′ of North latitude, and between 50° 10′ and 54° 23′ of East longitude (reckoning from the island of Ferro), according to the latest and best Russian map, made from a careful survey since the peninsula became a part of the Empire.

'It is about 85 versts, or 56⅔ English miles, *long*, from Perecop in a right line South to the port of Balaklava on the Euxine; and

'* This female prophecy has since been but too well verified; all of these noblemen having been attacked by the fatal fever, and several fallen martyrs to it already; among these, are the Counts Choisseul and D'Ailcourt, Mr. de Mico, &c. who died before proper medical assistance arrived at the colony.'

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about 300 versts, or 200 miles, *broad*, from cape Tarkanskoi projecting into the Black Sea on the Western coast, to the city of Jenikal on the Cimmerian Bosphorus, or Straits, which divide the Taurida from the island of Taman.

'The large river Salgir nearly divides the peninsula into two equal parts; and, most conveniently for the geographer who wishes to describe it, separates the saline grassy stept, or plain, on the North, (which has apparently been occupied in all ages by Scythians and their flocks,) from the fine mountainous country to the South, the admiration and abode of polished commercial nations for upwards of two thousand years, who filled its ports with ships and merchandize, till the barbarous Turks shut up the Thracian Bosphorus, and turned the busy Euxine into a watery desert.

'But, what is truly surprising is, that these two districts, thus accidentally separated by the river Salgir, are as different in climate, soil, and productions, as two countries widely distant from each other; a cold bleak winter often prevailing in the stept exposed to N. E. winds, which sweep the whole plain, without a tree or hillock to break their force; at the same time that the weather in the Southern vallies is mild and agreeable, and the fields are covered with flowers; so that these two natural divisions must absolutely be described separately.

'The Northern half, then, from the Salgir up to the place where I am now writing, is a level uniform plain without tree or hillock, which the sea seems to have formerly covered, and on retiring left its cavities full of salt water, now the Salt Lakes, its greatest riches and principal revenue. These, however, may probably still communicate with the sea.

'But, independent of the store of salt contained in these natural reservoirs, the sea has likewise left so strong an impregnation of that mineral in many other parts of the plain (more particularly on the shores, and the banks of the lakes, where the earth is constantly kept saturated with it), that nothing will grow but plants that delight in salt; which, however, afford excellent pasture for horses, wool-bearing animals, and, above all, for dromedaries and camels. But, notwithstanding this uncommon alliance between the Tauric stept and the ocean, which makes it promise so little to agriculture, in places where the salt has been washed out by rain and mountain floods, corn has been reared in great quantities, so as to have rendered the Taurida the granary of the Euxine, till the late wars banished or destroyed such a number of the inhabitants, that the lands now lie uncultivated, and will continue so till the known toleration of Russia, joined to wise regulations for the production of new settlers, shall repeople the famous Chersonese, which will one day be a brilliant gem in the Imperial diadem.

'I shall finish this hasty sketch of the low and level part of the Taurida, by remarking, that it is as sultry and even scorching in summer, as it is bleak and cold in winter, and from the same cause in both seasons, *viz.* a want of shelter; while the water is of course brackish in the saline grounds.

'To my Map I refer you for the rivers, and every thing else here omitted; though, in coming back this way, I do not intend passing any object without notice.

'The Southern half begins gradually to rise from the Salgir into a ridge of calcareous mountains, the whole breadth of the greater peninsula, till it reaches the lesser, of Kerch, which is a diminutive plain, comparatively with the one that I have been describing, that makes a kind of wing to the Taurida, and runs Eastward to the Cimmerian Bosphorus.

'Between this first, or calcareous chain, and a second of high schistous or slaty mountains, which border the Southern shore, lie some of the most charming temperate vallies to be found in any country, enjoying the climate and productions of Europe; while beyond them, that is, between these last mountains and the Euxine, are situated another range of vallies, still warmer, which boast the climate and fruits of Asia Minor, and where, in the opinion of Pallas, even the delicate orange might flourish without fear of winter frost.

'To these curious varieties of climate and soil (occasioned by local causes) in so short a distance as 8; versts, from Perecop to the Southern shore, which may teach geographers not to judge of climate, in their studies, merely from latitude and longitude, I shall only add here a few peculiarities in the natural history of the peninsula, as more will appear in the course of my Letters, when I shall come to treat of particular places. Granite, the common basis of mountains, is wanting in those of the Taurida, which are entirely made up of what commonly constitutes the second and third orders; nay, what is still more extraordinary, not only is every trace of metals wanting in them, but even the ordinary matrices of the precious metals, granite, feltspath, and gneis, with the micaceous and horny slate, or schistus, are not to be found here; while the Tauric quartz does not contain a particle of metal of any kind.

'The vallies, and ravins cut out by torrents in the Tauric mountains (the only beds of rivers in this country), are always either scooped out in the argillaceous schistus, or in the soft and mouldering breccia, which compose so great a part of them; while the petrifications contained in those mountains are confined to the calcareous rocks, or sandy slate, and are all foreign shells, *not found in the surrounding seas;* a sure proof of great antiquity.

'As to the botany of the Tauric plain (for I shall afterwards have occasion to mention the plants of the hills and vallies), it is nearly as simple and uniform as that of the plains between the Don and the Volga, described by Pallas; a few species of centaury making the only difference; one of which is the principal food of the Tauric sheep; but, as we are summoned to dinner, I shall make an end of my curiosities and my Letter, with assuring you that I am, &c.'

The saline plains which extend from Pérécop to *Eupatoria* (lately *Kosloff*) on the Euxine, are passed over with merited rapidity.

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'The fortune of war,' observes the journalist, 'has much reduced this place [Eupatoria] if it was as considerable as is pretended in the time of the Tartar government; which I rather doubt, from its port being inferior to many others in the peninsula; although, no doubt, the exportation of the salt ready crystallized on its lakes, as in the saline plain of yesterday, must always have employed a certain quantity of shipping, being an article in great demand on the opposite or South Coast of the Euxine, for reasons which I shall give when I come to treat of the Fisheries. Leather made here is likewise exported in considerable quantities, together with the produce of an old Tartar fabric of woollen carpets, well worth the inspection of travellers, as it seems to be a Scythian manufactory still in its first stage of invention; for I cannot suppose it introduced even by the first foreign settlers the Greeks, as they certainly were more advanced, even at that early period, than what this patriarchal art would indicate, if Homer did not weave in his brain the beautiful *webs* with which his poems are adorned; for the art of weaving has not yet reached the city of Eupatoria, as may be judged from the following account.

'These carpets are still made of two or three layers of combed wool, placed above one another, and made to adhere merely by pressure and moisture, without the aid of the loom; nay, the honest Tartars of Eupatoria are even so far from taking advantage of modern discoveries in mechanics, that, instead of effecting this adhesion by the pressure of cylinders, it is done, as in the time of the Patriarchs, by treading them under foot for a few hours; nay, even when they are to be adorned with flowers, the texture is still the same, which gives an idea of the Tartar progress in the arts at the end of the 18th century.

'In short, these primitive carpets, parents of the famous *Gobelins*, offer an interesting scale of comparison between the art in its infancy, as still to be seen in Eupatoria, and in the celebrated manufactory of France. It is likewise worthy of remark, that they are still made here exactly in the same manner as the thick felt stuff called wylock, with which the round Scythian tents were covered in the time of Herodotus, and are to this day under the name of Kabitkies.'

On approaching *Sympheropol*, the capital of Taurida, the dreariness of the desert gave place to beautiful verdant fields, watered by the *Salgir*, and charmingly diversified by a variety of surface and patches of trees.—Romantic scenery still accompanied our traveller to *Batcheserai*, the antient capital of the Taurida, the supposed *Palatium* of Strabo, and the *Badatium* of Ptolemy. Like all Tartar towns, its streets are ill paved, narrow, and very dirty. Yet here we are agreeably surprized by a most picturesque *coup d'œil:*

'Only figure to yourself, my good friend, in a deep valley bounded by a huge chain of pendant rocks, an assemblage of Tartar houses of uncouth forms, stuck as it were against the sides of the moun-

tains, and placed in circles one above another, round the palace of their Chan (situated at the bottom of the valley), so as to represent a large amphitheatre, or rather funnel, with streets between the rows of houses; a form of a city as novel as it is curious and romantic; which you will suppose when I tell you that the whole is surmounted by a tremendous fringe of enormous rocks cut out, by mountain torrents, into strange grotesque figures hanging over the houses, and threatening, to appearance, instant destruction to the peaceable inhabitants below.

'Here you may fancy that you see a high antique tower, the work of former ages, frowning over the city, threatening to destroy in its fall what it seems to have been once destined to defend; there you may imagine an immense obelisk, raised to commemorate some antient Scythian victory, possibly the retreat of Darius, or Philip, before their Nomade ancestors. In short, a warm and lively imagination might fancy a hundred such forms and objects in this rude and gigantic assemblage of figures, cut out by the great sculptors of the universe, air and water.

'The palace, which, as said before, rises in the middle of this curious Tauric city, to add greatly to the singularity and romantic appearance of the scene, is a curious species of painted Chinese structure, well suited to such a group of oddities.

'To describe its external form, a traveller must be acquainted with the language of oriental architecture, being too different from ours to admit of European *technicals;* and as I am neither sufficiently read in the writings of Sir William Chambers, nor in Arabian story*, to attempt a description, I shall content myself with assuring you, that the inside is still more singular than the outside; and that, without the clue of Ariadne, she must be a sorceress indeed who finds her way out, when once fairly entered in this Scythian labyrinth, which might vie with that of Crete, or any other in antiquity.

'It does not, however, want a kind of oriental magnificence, where the Eastern luxury of the haram has not been forgotten, calculated, like the Genecæon of the Greeks, to cut off all communication between the apartments of the men and women; and solely destined for the abode and amusement of the fair sex, who have been left in all ages and countries to languish by themselves, except in the assemblies of modern Europe; and, let me tell you, it is to this happy union that modern society owes all its charms and all its acquired advantages; for, without us, you are but a sort of taciturn bears when the glass is from your lips.

'We enter this princely residence by a spacious court, and are struck, in passing through it, with a view of the garden on one hand, hanging on the brow of a hill in form of terraces, like the antient gardens of Semiramis in Babylon, or those on the mountains

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'* There is, I believe, no book existing, which contains so much information on oriental customs, gardening, and even architecture, as the Arabian Nights Entertainments; a valuable relict of the once polished, learned, and magnificent Saracens.'

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of Egyptian Thebes. On the other hand, the time-sculptured rocks, mentioned above, confine and adorn the prospect; while in the court itself you find a handsome mosque with a lofty elastic spire, that shakes like a tree under you whilst you view the whole city from its lofty summit. This seems to be the very ornament that the Saracens introduced into Europe, so common on the cathedrals of the Middle Ages under the name of *Gothic*, though for what reason I cannot imagine, unless a want of the trembling lightness of the Arabian minaret bespeaks a Gothic architect. It may be necessary to add, that this is not merely an ornament, but a useful appendage to the Mahometan temples (or Metchets, as mosques are called) in the Taurida; for, although they use no bells, a crier announces from the minaret, the stated hours for prayers, which are attended by *mussulmen* with a regularity that might put christians to the blush, especially at the end of the 18th century; when a religion evidently calculated for the happiness of civil society, is more or less neglected every where, and entirely thrown aside by one great nation, who seem foolish enough to think that a mighty empire may exist without any: a new maxim equally unknown to antients and moderns, and which seems the height of phrenzy to Yours, &c.'

The next direct stage led through a pleasant mountainous country to *Sebastapol*, the principal port of the Black Sea. The most remarkable objects in its neighbourhood are the Convent of St. George, the vestiges of the temple of the Tauric Diana at *Parthenium*, and *Balaklava*, the *Portus Symbolon* of Strabo, now reduced to about 400 houses, and chiefly inhabited by an unfortunate colony of Albanian refugees, who have dwindled from 3000 to 1500.

'It is really distressing to hear the survivors lament the unhappy fate of their friends and relations, cut off by an unknown enemy, which pours out death and disease from a hidden source; which all are equally exposed to, although persons born on the spot resist it much better than their parents, the first settlers, who have suffered so much; and still even this second generation has but a sickly look. The deadly vapour so destructive here seems to be *a* putrid marsh *miasma*, the same pestiferous blast that chased the hardy Russian troops from the modern Cherson, and which will soon put to flight, or lay in the grave, the little French colony of noblemen planted on the banks of the Dnieper.'

As a counterpart to this melancholy picture, we transcribe the 35th letter:

'I date this letter from the lovely valley of Baydar, called by the natives the *Tauric Arcadia*, the *Crimean Tempé*, &c. and by every fond name that rural enthusiasm can suggest to the enraptured visitors of this fairy retreat. For my own part, I acknowledge myself among those who prefer the Tauric to the Thessalian Tempé, even admitting the flowery descriptions of Pliny and Ælian, without ill-naturedly contrasting them with those of Livy and Ovid; an unnecessary severity in the cause of Baydar, whose real beauties far

surpass the poetic charms of the classic Tempé, were I even to conceal a material difference between them; viz. that while the harsh and noisy *Peneus* roars through the first, inspiring nothing but terror, Baydar is watered by two gentle murmuring streams, which excite pleasure and delight.

'I thought that I had already seen every charming and every sportive decoration of nature in the lovely vallies of this peninsula; but all are obliterated and eclipsed at the first glance of the pastoral Baydar, which well deserves to be sung by a Theocritus, a Virgil, or a Thomson; a truth of which I am so firmly convinced, that I am almost resolved not to attempt its description in frigid prose. However, as ladies' resolutions are not always so fixed as the laws of the Medes and Persians *, and as I really find myself too big with this arcadia to carry it any farther, I must tell you here all that we saw; and lucky you are to obtain a glimpse without coming at it, on horseback, as we did, over dreadful precipices, which would frighten any thing but a Tartar horse; but my poney jogged along the rugged path as if on an English turnpike-road, while I was glad to shut my eyes, to avoid growing giddy in looking down on this Tauric elysium.

'Can you transport yourself, with me, into a heavenly valley, of an oval form, about 20 miles long, and surrounded by high mountains, covered with beautiful woods; where many kinds of wild fruit, mixed with odoriferous flowering shrubs, adorn the green ramparts which cut off all communication with the vicious world?

'The innocent inhabitants of this Tauric Arcadia are not mere shepherds and shepherdesses of the poets' creation; but really such in the true pastoral sense of the word; many of the latter never were beyond their native mountains, and probably will pass the remainder of their harmless lives without ever quitting this quiet and tranquil retreat.

'A number of Tartar villages are situated most romantically in this fine valley. Here, you see their rustic cottages stuck as it were against the sides of the mountains, and peeping out of hanging orchards; there, out of irregular clumps of fine trees planted by nature on the banks of the two limpid streams that water as they wind through the Tauric Tempé. In short, I will tell you in one sentence, that you must visit the valley of Baydar, to feel all the effect that these objects are calculated to produce, when animated by the view of flocks, shepherds, and husbandmen, all around you; the latter cultivating their fairy abode, which well repays their labour with abundant crops, fully adequate to the few wants of these truly pastoral Tartars.

'Would you believe it? My sensations were in such a train, as to excite an idea that the rude Tartar pipe was melodious here, which

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'* A late author (I forget whom) accounts most satisfactorily for the antient reputation of *stability* in the laws of the Medes and Persians, by telling us, that those people were the first who had a written code; while other nations were governed by uncertain and floating laws.'

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had so often made me stop my ears elsewhere; but whether this was not partly owing to these piping shepherds being from constant practice better performers, and partly to the fine echo of the mountains, returning a softened sound, I will not take upon me to determine; but I insist on the fact, that the rude Tartar tube of Baydar might dispute the prize, in its own delightful valley, even with the Bucolic pipe of Theocritus, which won the crook of Lycidas.

'It is by passing through this living landscape that you arrive at the little town of Baydar, which has the honour of giving its name to the lovely valley, and has certainly nothing else to boast of; however, the lovers of ruins and of conjecture may here find full scope for both, in the vast remains of an antient structure that cover the ground near the modern town. I must own, that my imagination was instantly at work, and my eyes diligently employed in searching for some inscription, or other certain mark, whereby to discover the position of one of those antient cities so loosely described by the Greek and Roman geographers as to elude all modern search; such as the Porosta, Postigia, Bæum, and Iluratum of Ptolemy, the Chavis of Strabo, and Dia of Pliny; but all to no purpose; as I found nothing to convince either myself or any body else.

'I must therefore leave the ruins of Baydar just as wise as I came to them, and content myself with telling you what I *did* find; viz. a little purling rill arising from a copious spring, which, after murmuring through a part of these antique ruins, as if mourning their fall, carries its rich tribute to the inhabitants of the *new* town, as formerly bestowed on the *old*, which, however, it still constantly visits in passing, to teach ungrateful man never to abandon a fallen friend Adieu, my good Sir; and let me assure you, that if the romantic convent of St. George almost enticed me to turn nun, the enchanting valley of Baydar is still more dangerous; so that, if I do not quickly fly this fairy retreat, you must not be surprised at receiving, one of these days, a letter, from Maria the Tauric shepherdess.'

Having reached the southern extremity of the Peninsula, our fair traveller slowly prosecuted her journey eastward, along a fruitful coast, once the seat of numerous Greek cities, and chiefly consisting of semicircular vallies, which terminate at the bottom of an extended Alpine range. The lofty plains of the latter rival those of Andalusia in rearing a breed of sheep, celebrated for the fineness of their fleece.

Of *Soudak*, the *Citæum* of Ptolemy, we are told that it had an archbishop as early as 786, and, in the zenith of its splendour, 'possessed some *hundred* churches, with a great variety of nations and sects within its walls.' This once-flourishing city now exists only in ruins; yet its surrounding beauties have survived the waste of time and tyranny:

'But of all the singular spots of this curious country, the romantic environs of Soudak are among the most remarkable, and well calculated

exlated to form a Salvator Rosa, a Claude Lorrain, or a Poussin; for surely the artist might here find the studies, if he brought with him the genius, of those great painters. On one side, you have fine mountains, covered with wood and verdure, terminating in cool and shady groves of delicious fruit, which slope down from the sides of the hills, to adorn the vallies. On the other, black weather beaten rocks; which, from the destructible nature of the mountain (composed of argillacious slate, sand-stone, and soft Breccia), present more various forms than, possibly, all the three great masters above mentioned ever beheld.

'But if any one should happen to stroll out, as I did, into the delightful vallies near the city, in a clear moon-light night, what a new creation of monsters will arise to their astonished sight! objects which even Brydone's Sicilian never thought of, joined to the whole range of gothic architecture, with spires, turrets, &c. Indeed, my good friend, although I have been so much amused in several parts of the Taurida, especially at Batcheserai and here, with the grotesque figures of the *time-sculptured rocks* as I have named them, infinitely various and picturesque, from the facility with which they are decomposed; yet, if I had a talent for landscape-painting, I doubt whether I should have courage to present the world with all the various fantastic forms that they assume in this romantic peninsula; lest your critics, who judge of every thing from what they have seen themselves, though, probably, never out of the sound of their own parish-bell, should discover a new genus of bouncers, and add bouncing painters to the old list of bouncing travellers.

'Seriously speaking, however, although the public are perfectly right in adopting with much caution new facts in natural history; yet, scepticism in every thing seems to have become a kind of fashion of late years; insomuch that it is thought to give an appearance of superior judgement and sagacity to men of the bon ton; while it is certainly by much the easiest way of getting rid of all inquiry and discussion in difficult cases, to declare yourself decidedly a sceptic on the subject; by which the whole matter is at once settled, without discovering your ignorance.

'This reflection has been more particularly suggested to my mind by the hard treatment of the late James Bruce, Esq. who, after having travelled many years at his own expence, and penetrated into Abysinia at the hazard of his life, to enlarge our knowledge on several subjects, was received as an impostor * on his return to Bri-

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'* The late James Bruce, Esq. of Kinnaird, a gentleman of independent fortune, and his Majesty's Consul General on the coast of Barbary, seems to have owed the ill reception he received in England to stories invented by some French travellers from Egypt, who probably were jealous of the attention paid him by their sovereign Louis XV. (who sent him instruments on his setting out) and of the pompous manner in which their great naturalist, Buffon, announced his coming back to Europe, and the obligations that Natural History owed to his labours. EDITOR.'

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tain; and we should have been for ever deprived of his valuable and instructive work, had not the principal facts on which your pretended critics founded their disbelief of his veracity been most accidentally authenticated by Indian merchants just arrived from Abyssinia, who appeared on a cause tried before the great oriental scholar Sir William Jones, late Judge of Bengal.

'Such a reception, I say, ought to make us travellers particularly careful how we relate strange things from strange countries, especially strange *customs*, although they should even be as old as the time of the Patriarchs, and have been forbidden by an express law of Moses *.

'You need be under no apprehension, however, from my boldness, as I shall neither attempt Tauric landscapes nor Abyssinian dinners; but, in conformity to the injunction of the Jewish legislator, go quietly to eat a *killed* beef-stake, and bid you adieu.'

Of the letters dated from *Caffa*, or *Theodosia*, another city fallen from its greatness, the most interesting is that which relates to the sale of the Circassian girls. If the author's reflections on this shocking practice are little to the honour of our species, they are at least somewhat consolatory, and bespeak a mind which is accustomed to calculate the influence of circumstances on different states of society.

That we may not wander beyond our usual limits, we pass in silence the modern ghosts of several fair cities indicated by Ptolemy, Arrian, and the Nubian geographer, no longer illustrated by the opulence and animation which result from liberty and trade; with the reasons assigned for the formation of recent strata on the shores of the Euxine; and the curious account of the mud explosions at *Taman*.

From the latter place, the antient *Phanagoria*, our entertaining journalist measured back her way to *Kerch*, formerly *Panticapeos* or *Bosphorus:* but which, in its present state, affords little that is worthy of remark. From this point to *Old Crim* (*Cimmerium*), the country is highly romantic, but in other respects uninteresting.

At *Karasubazar*, probably the *Portacra* of Ptolemy, there exists an elegant *sudatorium*, which is still used as a perspiring bath:

'The other object of attention in this city is, an antient Manufactory of Morocco Leather, of which they make large quantities from the skins of the numerous flocks of Tauric goats.

'They begin the process by cleaning the skins in the following manner. After having steeped some raw hides in cold water for twenty-four hours, to free them from blood and other impurities,

'* See Mr. Bruce's Defence against his chimney-corner antagonists.'

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the fleshy parts are scraped off with proper instruments. They are next macerated for ten days in cold lime-water, to loosen the hair, which is likewise scraped off as clean as possible.

'For fifteen days they lie in clean cold water, and then are worked under foot in a succession of clean waters; the last being impregnated with dog's dung, to loosen the hair still more; when they receive a second scraping, and are drained of their humidity; which finishes the cleaning process.

'They now proceed to what they call feeding the skins, by steeping them four days in a cold infusion of wheat bran; then in a decoction of honey and water, twenty-eight pounds to five pails, cooled down to the temperature of new milk; out of which they are put under press into a vessel with holes at the bottom to let the liquor escape. They are, lastly, steeped four days in a light solution of salt and water, one pound to five pails; this finishes the preparation; and the leather is now ready to receive the dye.

'A strong decoction of artemisa annua, or southernwood, in the proportion of four pounds to ten pails of water, seems to be the basis of all the different colours that they give to the Morocco in the Taurida, Astracan, and the other cities formerly belonging to the Tartar empire, where the secret has remained till now.

'When a red colour is intended, a pound of cochineal in powder is gradually stirred into ten pails of the fine yellow decoction of artemisa, and boiled up in it for half an hour, with five or six drachms of alum, and poured on the leather in a proper vessel. They are next worked under feet in an infusion of oak leaves in warm water, till they become supple and soft; when they are finally rinsed in cold water, then rubbed over with olive oil, and callendered with wooden rollers; which finishes the manufacture.

'The yellow Morocco is dyed with the decoction of artemise alone; only stronger, twenty pounds of it to fifteen pails being the proportion when used without other admixture; but two pounds of alum in fine powder, is gradually added, by half a table spoonful at a time; and with this each skin is twice stained before the last operations of oiling and callendering.

'It is, however, necessary to remark, that there is a little difference in the preparation of the skins for receiving the pure yellow dye described above; as neither honey nor salt are used; but, instead of them, the hides are steeped for two days in an infusion of oak-leaves, (immediately after being taken out of the infusion of bran wherein they must have lain four,) and then worked under feet for a few hours of two days; next rinsed in cold water, and placed one above another on poles, to drain off the water and make them ready for staining.

'This is all the certain information that I have been able to obtain on this curious subject; for I can by no means depend on the vague reports that I have heard, relative to the colouring matter added for staining the *green* and *blue* kinds of Morocco; so that I prefer leaving you in the same uncertainty, to giving as facts what I cannot myself depend upon.'

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For some curious particulars relative to the excentric Mr. Willis, and for notices of Tauric character, customs, manners, &c. &c. we must refer our readers to the book itself.

Mrs. G.'s return over the desert tracts to Nicolayef is, unavoidably, barren of interesting remark: yet, even during this retrograde and unpromising portion of her travels, we find her bestowing particular attention on the preparation of the *koumis* (or sour cow's milk) and the construction of Scythian tents.

At Nicolayef, she was detained during the winter, from want of cold to render the roads practicable in a sledge: but she appears to have passed much of her time in very enviable society.

'As to your most respectable old friend Admiral Mordwinoff, you know better than I can tell you the uprightness of his mind, and the suavity of his manners; but as your fair countrywoman, his lady, never accompanies her husband to Peterburgh, although so well entitled in every respect to appear at court, some account of that interesting fair-one I am sure will be acceptable; and I will begin it by assuring you, that she seems to have been intended by nature for the worthy Admiral, to whom by fortune she has been united.

'The entire pleasure and happiness of this ornament of her sex seems to consist in her fine family and domestic duties; for she really appears above the little vanity of etiquette and precedency attached to her situation and rank, as wife of the Commander in Chief of the fleets on the Black Sea; behaving to every one with that noble simplicity of manner, and native unaffected politeness, which ever spring from a cultivated mind and sound judgment.

'The influence that the example of chiefs has on the manners and morals of a rising colony, is finely illustrated at Nicolayef in many respects; but it struck me most forcibly at the Admiral's public assemblies; where I observed, that every lady seemed to vie with her neighbour, who should appear there with the greatest neatness and simplicity of dress, to be in uniformity with the charming mistress of the house, who always presides in a plain linen or cotton gown, more ornamented by her native graces and distinguished urbanity, than by all the ruinous finery so common every where else in Russia, but which the example of this worthy couple has banished from the settlement entrusted to their care, to the great relief of the inhabitants (mostly in the service of government), who are thereby enabled to live comfortably on their pay, although very inadequate to support luxury at the end of the 18th century, however ample it may have been in the time of Peter I. the great founder of the military, naval, and civil establishments.

'There is one material want most evident in this new colony; and that is of ladies, if I may judge from the number of suitors for the hand of the young woman who left her attendance on our children to accompany me in my journey.

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'The amiable Lady Mordwinof, who is so much above all petty prejudices, having insisted on her dining at table, she was courted alternately by three officers, and married the last who entered the lists (I verily believe) because he was an Englishman, as she had a liking to your country, and spoke the language.

'Thus you see, my good friend, that the liberality of mind of my fair hostess, and the scarcity of females in Nicolayef, has left me to return alone to St. Petersburg, if I can find no one to supply the place of Mrs. Young, for that is her new name; but, instead of being offended at Cupid for playing me such a trick, I am, on the contrary, thankful that he did not draw his bow before my Tour to the Taurida; and I console myself with contemplating the happiness of the young couple.

'Do not, however, be alarmed at the idea of my travelling unattended, as the Admiral has appointed an officer, a serjeant, and a soldier, to see me safe to my own house; so that only a female is wanting; and, if I can do no better, I shall take with me a sailor's wife, who now acts as waiting-woman.'

To the above outline and extracts, we have only to add that, if this tourist displays no uncommon depth of observation nor brilliancy of description, her letters uniformly breathe good humour, good sense, and an engaging ease and liveliness of manner. The union of these qualities in a lady condemned to struggle with the hardships incident to a tedious journey, to absence from her dearest relatives, and to confirmed indisposition, commands at once our surprize and esteem. The cheerless expanse of the Tartar desert, and provinces desolated by ages of despotism, are alike unfriendly to profound research, and to rich or vivid painting.—Mrs. G. has not wholly overlooked a few of the most striking physical phænomena which occurred to her observation: but she has judiciously reserved the enumeration and description of natural productions, for the elaborate pages of Professor Pallas, whose travels will shortly solicit our attention.

We should now attempt an analysis of such parts of the present volume as have been furnished by the editor, in the form of additional letters, a supplement, and an appendix: but the article is already extended to a sufficient length; and these extra pieces chiefly relate to subjects of antiquity, such as the colonization and commerce of the shores of the Euxine, Tauric medals, sepulchral Bosphoric monuments, &c. without adding much to the information which may be extracted from former writers. The 99th letter, on the *Hyberboreans*, is certainly ingenious, and, in some respects, novel.—The identity of the *Bog* and *Axiacus* is also noticed with singular propriety; because it is a geographical truth not generally admitted. Peyssonnel, if we rightly recollect, suggested the arguments.

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The professed antiquary will not refuse to Dr. G. very respectable pretensions to patience and learning; and even the general scholar may derive amusement or instruction from his copious medallic illustrations. In our opinion, however, the letters of his deceased lady would have appeared to more advantage in a separate form. The subjoined materials, announced with pomp, and discussed with phlegm, might easily have formed a continuation of the "Russian Antiquities," or have added a few memoirs to the Transactions of the Antiquarian Society: but they do not well accord with the simple and popular observations of a female traveller.

Accustomed as we are to the vanity of authors, we were more diverted than surprized at the minute complacency with which the Doctor quotes his own writings. As he professes to have supplied the details concerning the antient state of the places described, we may presume that, in the two following instances, he does not praise the good Archbishop Eugenius for nothing. At page 24, his lady says, or *seems to say*, 'As several of the restored names of places on this coast are very exact, you will probably be curious to know who the antiquary was that pointed them out to Prince Potemkin; and I find that it was the able and venerable Grecian Eugenius, archbishop of all these new conquests, and who addressed to you the beautiful little Greek ode on your "Russian Antiquities," which was published with them.' Again, (p. 62.) 'Prince Potemkin was so happy as to have the assistance of the learned Eugenius Archbishop of the Taurida, who wrote the pretty Greek lines on your "Russian Antiquities."

The industry and erudition which we have just contemplated are, doubtless, deserving of another pretty little ode; and, as sweet poesy delights in fiction, the encomiastic muse may boldly descant on the correctness, elegance, and smartness of the Doctor's style; while hapless Reviewers are doomed to speak in plain English, and in humble prose, of the ruggedness of the way, and of the perils of yawning and drowsiness which thickened as they advanced. We have frequently been surprized at the prolonged structure of Dr. G.'s sentences: but, in mercy to our readers, we shall quote only one example:

'There are still some remains here of the famous wall, which Xenophon, in his continuation of Thucydides, tells us was built by Dercyllius, General of the Lacedæmonians, within the above mentioned taphras, or trench, four miles and six hundred paces long, in consequence of a representation made to him while commanding an army in Thrace, now Romali, by deputies from the Chersonesus Taurica (the ancient name of the Crimea, or Taurida), who declared

the peninsula constantly exposed to the incursions of the Scythians of the desert; and the more certainly to engage the General to build the required wall, they assured him that he would thereby secure the peace and happiness of eleven cities, several sea-ports, and many vineyards, besides a quantity of corn and pasture-land, all in the alliance and protection of Sparta; and Xenophon adds, that Dercyllius finished it in one summer by offering rewards to the most diligent of his soldiers.'

An antiquary ought to have more respect for grammar than to talk of the *charming order and arrangement that ever reigns*, of the *new fort and city* which *has been*, of afflicting *you and I*, &c. &c. *Penates* and *vittæ* are both occasionally employed as singular terms; and *sculptoric*, *technicals*, and *lubricious*, are used without necessity or apology. Among very unscholar-like misprintings, we observe *lote*, *Sorbis acaparia*, *cantana*, *Peladimus*, *Thymus*, *Dolphinus*, *medimi*, *osterea*, &c. for *lotus*, *Sorbus aucuparia* (oddly mistranslated *hag* *), *lantana*, *Pelamis*, *Thynnus*, *Delphinus*, *Medienni*, *ostrea*, &c.

If Dr. G. declines to trace the distinctions between the Tartar and Mongul tribes, we are not to suppose that he is 'by any means ignorant of what has been said on the subject,'† but merely that he wishes 'to save trouble and avoid explanations that are tiresome to readers when they do not sit down with the express purpose of such investigations, for which a Lady's tour is certainly a very improper place.' We really lament that this exquisite sense of the fitness of things was so late in waiting on the learned physician, and that it so very soon forsook him. In the course of a few pages, we find him again *abandoned to his idols*, and discoursing with wonderful coolness of *Priapus*, *a glaring Phallus*, and other matters, for which we conceive 'a Lady's tour to be a very improper place.'

We cannot close our report of this volume, however, without remarking, in justice to the editor, that he has bestowed uncommon pains on the construction of the map; and that his labours have added much to our imperfect knowlege of long-forgotten countries, which promise once more to emerge into notice and importance.

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* *Hag-berry* is, we believe, the Scottish appellation of *Prunus Padus*, or *Bird cherry*.

† See note, p. 412.

Muir.

Art. II. *Mr.* Percival's *Account of the Island of Ceylon.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 127.]

Agriculture is still in a state of extreme rudeness among the Ceylonese. Their plough is a crooked piece of wood, one end of which serves for the handle, and the other, shod with iron, tears up the ground superficially. The rice-fields are worked with this instrument before and after they have been flooded. The other implements of husbandry are a smoothing board, and a piece of board fastened to the end of a long pole, which answers the purpose of a rake. Sowing and ploughing are the common concern of each village. Secure of the spontaneous fruits of the earth, and of a pittance of rice sufficient to maintain existence where the soil admits of watering, these lazy cultivators are averse to all improvements, especially if attended with additional labour.

The religious notions of the Ceylonese are polluted by the most degrading superstitions; and the same people who adore one supreme benevolent being, and *Buddou*, or the Saviour of Souls, regulate their conduct by a childish belief in omens, and pay homage to fancied demons, to animals, and to plants. The resurrection of the body and the immortality of the soul compose part of their discordant creed; and their ideas of rigid predestination are softened by the persuasion that spells and almsgiving may lighten the pressure of appointed calamity. To the dishonour of our race, the more sly and discerning individuals of a rude community have seldom failed to practise on the ignorance and ideal terrors of their weaker brethren, and to derive credit and emolument from the propagation of dogmas artfully connected with the sublime doctrine of a future state of existence. We need not, then, wonder if priestcraft should flourish in the mountainous districts of Ceylon:

'The priests of Buddou are in Ceylon accounted superior to all others. They are called *Tirinanxes*, and are held in high estimation at the court of Candy, where indeed they have the chief management of affairs. The king has no authority over them, but endeavours to gain their good-will by respecting their immunities, and loading them with distinctions. They have on many occasions shewn their gratitude for these attentions, and have materially assisted him both in repressing disturbances in his own dominions, and by exciting the people to support him in his wars against the Dutch. The followers of Buddou believe in the immortality of the soul, and its transmigration into various bodies before it reaches Nimban, or the region of Eternity.

'In such high veneration are the Tirinanxes held that their persons are accounted sacred; and the king of Candy, absolute as he is, has no power to take away their lives or anywise punish them even for

conspiring against his own life. They chuse their own superiors: and their chief priest or archbishop is invested with the power of settling all religious disputes. The body of the Tirinanxes are elected by the king from among the nobles, and they are consequently men possessed of power and influence even independent of their sacred character. The honours and respect with which they are every where attended shew the strong hold which they have on the minds of the people. All ranks bow down before them; when they sit down, they find their seats covered with a white cloth; and when they walk forth, the broad end of the Talipot leaf is borne before them: All these are privileges of the highest kind, and shared with them only by the monarch. The Tirinanxes are also exempted from all taxes. They are placed under certain restrictions, and are totally debarred from wine or women. They have however an opportunity of escaping from these restraints; and are allowed to lay aside their order when it suits their inclination.

'Their dress consists of a large loose piece of yellow cloth thrown over their left shoulder, and fastened round the waist by a girdle of the same. The right shoulder, the arms, the head, and the feet, are completely bare. In one hand they carry a painted cane, and in the other an umbrella of the broad end of the Talipot leaf.

'The temples of Buddou are superior to those of all the other deities; for they never dedicate temples to the Supreme Being, nor represent him by any image. In the temples of Buddou are figures of men habited, like his priests, and placed in various postures: some of them are seen sitting cross-legged on the ground with long bushy heads of hair like their women, while others recline at full length on the ground. At Ruanelli in the interior, I saw a monstrous figure upwards of twenty feet in length, placed in the cavern of an immense rock which lay at the bottom of a hill: I shall describe it more particularly in my account of the embassy to Candy.

'In the interior of Ceylon, the ruins of the pagodas and temples which fell in my way were all of hewn stone, and of much superior workmanship to these in the lower parts of the country. Several of them were in a perfect state of preservation; and on a comparison with those erected in later times, they afford the strongest proof either that the Ceylonese had formerly attained a much higher state of civilization, or that the island had anciently been inhabited by a different race from its present possessors. Most of these ancient monuments however have suffered severely from the ravages of the Portuguese, whose policy it was to destroy all monuments of art or former splendour among the unhappy natives. But the religious buildings of the Ceylonese were not only defaced and ruined by their barbarous invaders; even the materials which composed them, the hewn stones and massy pillars, were transported to the sea-coasts to erect fortifications, and rivet those chains which were imposed on their former worshippers.

'The temples dedicated to the inferior gods are poor, mean, and contemptible; and usually constructed of clay and wood. In general they are mere huts one story high, without windows, and covered with cocoa-tree leaves. At the doors of these homely edifices, a pole

or flag is commonly placed, and by it a priest is seen sitting during the whole course of the day. There is no figure too ridiculous to find a place within: besides Swammies of all constructions, there are representations of wild beasts, birds, pieces of consecrated armour, and some very indecent figures of men and women.

'The priests of the inferior deities, though dressed in the same manner with the Tirinanxes, are easily distinguishable by the smaller degree of respect which is paid them. They are continually met in their wandering excursions over the island, and, like all these of the same class in India, are a set of lazy, impudent vagabonds, who, without any exertion or industry, are enabled to live well by the extortions which they practise on the people. Even those who supply their demands are conscious of their vices; but superstitious fears have taken too deep a hold on the minds of the votaries to permit them to withdraw themselves from the yoke.

'The superstition of the Ceylonese serves instead of regular endowments for the support of their religious establishments. The Candians indeed allow certain portions of land and particular taxes to maintain their priests and religious houses, particularly those of Buddou. The inferior priests however are left to support their temples and themselves by their own dexterity, and in this task they are very successful. As all sorts of diseases are accounted immediate indications of the divine wrath, the priest and the temple are the constant remedies. Hence all the religious resorts are daily crowded with diseased votaries who expect, by the prayers which they offer up, to appease the incensed gods. Nor do they ever neglect to enforce their prayers by a gift, which they devoutly deposit on the altar. The priest presents it up with all due ceremony to the god; and after its purpose is thus served, very prudently converts it to his own use. It is a rule with their priests never to quit the temple till replaced by some of their own order; and by this means the offerings of the devotees are punctually received, while another party of the priests are making a tour of the country in search of casual contributions.

'The time of sickness is of course the season when the priests expect their principal harvest. Besides other offerings, it is usual for a Ceylonese when he is apprehensive of danger from his illness, to devote a cock to the devil or evil spirit who he imagines torments him. The animal is then left at home to fatten till the Jaddese or priest finds it convenient to dedicate him at the Covel or temple. When any particular festival or sacrifice is intended, it is usual to see the priest going from village to village to collect the dedicated cocks for the occasion; and he often procures several dozens at a time.'

A very current tradition among the native islanders is, that our first parent took his farewell view of Paradise from the summit of Hammalleel, or Adam's Peak, the highest mountain in Ceylon; that he went by land to India; and that, as soon as he passed Adam's Bridge, the sea flowed behind him, and cut off for ever all hopes of return.

'It is to Adam's Peak that the Ceylonese repair to worship at the great Festival of Buddou. The Cinglese of the coasts in particular resort to it in vast multitudes. A large proportion of the Candians likewise attend; but whether from a fear of mixing with foreigners, or from ideas of superior sanctity, they seem more inclined to hold their great festival under the shade of the *Bogaha* tree, which stands at Annarodgburro, an ancient city, in the northern part of the king of Candy's dominions; and none but his own subjects are permitted to approach this sanctuary. The Bogaha tree, says tradition, suddenly flew over from some distant country, and planted itself in the spot where it now stands. It was intended as a shelter for the god Buddou; and under its branches he was wont to repose while he sojourned on earth. Near this hallowed spot ninety kings are interred, who all merited admission to the regions of bliss by the temples and images they constructed for Buddou. They are now sent as good spirits to preside over the safety of his followers, and protect them from being brought into subjection to Europeans; a calamity againſt which they continually pray. Around the tree are a number of huts, erected for the use of the devotees who repair hither; and as every sort of uncleanness and dust must be removed from the sacred spot, people are retained for the purpose of continually sweeping the approaches before the worshippers, and to attend the priests during the performance of the ceremonies.

'As the preference was given by Buddou to the shade of the Bogaha tree above all others, it is universally held sacred among the Ceylonese. Wherever it is found throughout the island, persons are appointed to watch over it and preserve it from dirt or injury. The Bogaha tree is held in the same estimation among the followers of Buddou, as the Banyan tree among the Brahmins.'

The *Cinglese*, as distinguished from the *Candians*, are mild and tractable, and appear to be very susceptible of virtuous education: but their intercourse with Europeans has deprived them of a portion of their physical and moral vigour, and their habits of submission to a foreign yoke have stamped their deportment with the characters of a conquered people. As such, they are too much despised by the Candians, who boast of being still unsubdued, when they cheerfully crouch to a tyrant of their own race.—The Cinglese are ingenious and expert artificers, supply our garrisons with provisions at a very moderate rate, and though, in most respects, subject to our laws and forms of justice, are under the immediate jurisdiction of their native magistrates, or *Moodeliers*. These last are chosen from among the nobles, who form a distinct class, and are intitled to peculiar privileges. They are partial to Europeans, and treat them with a degree of candour and affability unknown on the Continent of India.

Our intelligent author commences his account of the unconquered part of the island with this pertinent remark:

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'The possession of the interior might tend to the security of our dominion; and an improved mode of cultivation might make it capable of maintaining a much greater number of inhabitants; but these purposes may be as effectually attained by a friendly intercourse with the natives, as by a direct submission to our authority. Our government will doubtless avoid the error of the former European masters of Ceylon, who wasted unprofitably, in vain attempts to subdue the natives, that time and those resources which might have rendered this island one of the most valuable colonies in the world.'

The jealousy of the king of Candy and his subjects is a barrier hardly less formidable than the thickets and mountains which beset their territory. Should a stranger, by singular address or perseverance, penetrate within the rugged and gloomy circle, he is watched with the utmost circumspection; and his retreat is cut off, perhaps for life. Even the few ambassadors who have painfully journeyed with their retinues to the city, or rather miserable village of Candy, have been admitted to an unmeaning audience only by torch-light, and always retired before day-break. Our information concerning the interior of Ceylon is, accordingly, very scanty and imperfect. Mr. P.'s statements, however, rest on something more than conjecture; for he travelled in the suite of Gen. Macdowal, who was sent by Governor North as ambassador to Candy. Though the towns which are at present inhabited have a wretched aspect, the remains of others indicate a state of former splendour and civilization:

'The whole of the king's country, with the exception of the plains around Anurodgburro, present a constant interchange of steep mountains and low vallies. The excessive thickness of the woods, which cover by far the greatest portion of the country, causes heavy fogs and unwholesome damps to prevail. Every evening the fogs fall with the close of day, and are not again dissipated till the sun has acquired great power. The vallies are in general marshy, full of springs, and excellently adapted for the cultivation of rice and rearing of cattle. These advantages, however, are greatly counteracted by the unhealthiness of the climate in these parts after the rainy season. The principal difference between the climate of the interior and that of the coasts, is occasioned by the stagnation of the atmosphere in the former. The depth of the vallies and the thickness of the woods conspire to prevent the free circulation of air; and hence the night is constantly attended with excessive cold damps, which are succeeded by days equally noxious from their hot and sultry vapours. An European on coming into the interior is very liable to catch the hill or jungle fever. It is a disease resembling our ague and intermittent fever, and never leaves the person attacked if he does not immediately change his residence to the sea-coast, where the climate is more cool and refreshing by day, while it is free from the cold and damps of the night.'

The Candians are divided into four classes or casts; of which, the first includes the nobles; the second, the artists; the third, the workmen of a lower order, and the common soldiers; and the fourth, the peasants and labourers. The precedence and the purity of these immemorial divisions are observed with the most rigid nicety; and the unfortunate beings who have forfeited their cast entail indelible infamy on themselves and their posterity.

Though the crown of Candy is elective, the king, (who is always held to be descended of the Sun,) and his *Adigars*, or prime ministers, exercise an almost unlimited despotism; and that extreme veneration for the person of the sovereign, which characterizes most of the Eastern governments, is recognized to its full extent in the fastnesses of Ceylon. Every address preferred to the monarch is introduced by a multitude of high sounding titles; his very ministers converse with him in whispers; and his approach is announced by such barbarous pomp as a display of motley flags and streamers, and the production of a very loud and discordant noise from a jarring band of musical instruments:

'But the most remarkable attendants of the monarch are a set of people furnished with long whips of a peculiar kind, who keep running before the procession with strange gestures like madmen, to clear the way, and announce the approach of the king. The whips are made of hemp, coya, grass, or hair, and consist of a thong or lash from eight to twelve feet long, without any handle. The loud noise which the forerunners produce with their whips, as well as the dexterity with which they avoid touching those who come in their way, is truly astonishing; although an European, from the indiscriminate manner in which they appear to deal their lashes, cannot help feeling alarmed for his safety. In all the interviews which the embassy I attended had at the court of Candy, the ceremony of the whip crackers was never omitted, to the great annoyance of our troops, who were very sulky and displeased on the occasion. Indeed it was impossible for the men under arms to attend to what they were about while these long whips were kept continually brandishing and cracking about their ears; and for my own part, although I was well convinced of the dexterity of those who wielded them, yet I could not help expecting every moment to come in for my share of chastisement.'

The gradation of inferior court-officers composes a regular system of oppression and extortion. The *Dissauvas*, or military governors of districts, are next in rank to the Adigars. As they usually reside at court, they have inferior officers, who act according to their commands, either in collecting the public revenues, or in squeezing the people for the emolument of their patrons. Subordinate to these deputies, are the constables

stables and police-officers. The peasants 'have long since been stripped of every thing valuable, and many of them trust to the spontaneous fruits of their forests for a scanty subsistence, rather than cultivate fields whose produce must be shared with their oppressors.'

The regular troops, amounting to 20,000, wear no uniform, and are armed with such weapons as they can best procure. The king's body-guard consists of a band of Malabars, Malays, and others who are not his natural subjects. The latter, however, are all obliged to take arms, when called by the royal command. As it is part of the king's wretched policy to cherish *espionage* among all ranks of his subjects, the commander and other officers of the forces are never allowed to correspond, nor even to see each other, unless when the exigencies of the public service require an interview. Hence distrust and jealousy pervade the whole military system:

'With regard to courts of law or regular forms of administering justice, the Candians appear to have scarcely formed any conceptions. Their trials are summary; and their punishments, unless where the king interposes, immediate. Their capital punishments are always attended with some aggravating cruelty; having the criminal dashed to pieces by elephants, pounding him in a large mortar, or impaling him on a stake, are the common modes practised. Where the offence is not adjudged worthy of death, the culprit is condemned to pay a heavy fine, to have his property confiscated, to perform severe tasks of various sorts, such as carrying heavy weights on his back, levelling hills, and raising them up again, &c. Imprisonment is a species of punishment never to be inflicted on a Candian, and only suited to the barbarity of Europeans. This may be alleged as the principal cause of their summary trials and punishments, as they never confine a culprit. Not only a prison, but any species of confinement seems to convey ideas peculiarly horrible to their imaginations. The Candian ambassadors could not even be prevailed upon to allow the doors of the carriage, sent to convey them to an audience with our Governor, to be shut upon them, as they said it looked like making them prisoners: and the doors were actually obliged to be fastened back in order to remove their objections.'

Of the origin and history of the *Bedahs*, or *Vaddahs*, little is known, because they eagerly shun the society of the other races of inhabitants. The wildest of these woodland wanderers recognize no authority except that of their own chiefs: but others, without formally acknowleging the sovereignty of the king, furnish him with ivory, wax, and deer:

'And such of them as skirt the European territories, barter these articles with the Cinglese for the simple things which their mode of life requires. To prevent themselves from being surprised or made prisoners, while carrying on this traffic, the method they employ is curious. When they stand in need of cloth, iron, knives, or any other articles

articles of smiths' work, they approach by night some town or village, and deposit, in a place where it is likely immediately to be discovered, a certain quantity of their goods, along with a talipot leaf expressive of what they want in return. On a following night they repair again to the same place, and generally find their expected reward awaiting them. For although they are easily satisfied, and readily allow the advantage to the person with whom they deal, yet if their requests are treated with neglect, they will not fail to watch their opportunity of doing him a mischief. The Cinglese, as they can afterwards dispose of the articles afforded by the Bedahs, find the traffic profitable; and in some parts frequently go into the woods, carrying with them articles of barter. This trade, however, can only be carried on in the manner I have already described; for no native of the woods can be more afraid of approaching a stranger than the Bedahs. A few, as I have already said, will venture even to converse with the other natives; but the wilder class, known by the name of Ramba Vaddahs, are more seldom seen even by stealth than the most timid of the wild animals.'

Of the native quadrupeds of Ceylon, the Elephant is the most conspicuous, and surpasses those of the Continent in hardiness and docility. Horses and Sheep soon degenerate on the island; and are but rarely found. The Ox is small and shapeless, with a hump on its shoulders. Buffalos are very frequently used in draught, on account of their strength: but neither a sense of fear nor gentle usage can completely subdue their savage nature. When they are at large, it is very dangerous for any individual to fall in with them, especially if he be dressed in red, a colour to which they manifest a very marked antipathy.—The woods and jungles abound with Deer and Elks: but under the former, Mr. P. seems to include one or more varieties of the Antelope. Hares, Monkeys, Squirrels, Rats of various kinds, Porcupines, Armadillos, Jackalls, &c. are extremely common. Large and fierce Wild Boars, a small species of Tyger, and the Tyger-cat, are among the beasts of prey. The Hyæna and the Bear are occasionally found on the north-east side of the island:

'The Indian Ichneumon is a small creature, in appearance between a Weazel and a Mungoose. It is of infinite use to the natives, from its inveterate enmity to Snakes, which would otherwise render every footstep of the traveller dangerous. The proofs of sagacity which I have seen in this little animal are truly surprising, and afford a beautiful instance of the wisdom with which Providence has fitted the powers of every animal to its particular situation on the globe. This diminutive creature, on seeing a Snake ever so large, will instantly dart on it and seize it by the throat, provided he finds himself in an open place where he has an opportunity of running to a certain herb, which he knows instinctively to be an antidote against the poison of the bite, if he should happen to receive one. I was present at an experiment

tried

tried at Columbo to ascertain the reality of this circumstance. The Ichneumon, procured for the purpose, was first shewn the Snake in a close room. On being let down to the ground, he did not discover any inclination whatever to attack his enemy, but ran prying about the room to discover if there was any hole or aperture by which he might get out. On finding none, he returned hastily to his master, and placing himself in his bosom, could not by any means be induced to quit it, or face the Snake. On being carried out of the house, however, and laid down near his antagonist in an open place, he instantly flew at the Snake, and soon destroyed it. He then suddenly disappeared for a few minutes, and again returned as soon as he had found the herb and eat of it. This useful instinct impels the animal to have recourse to the herb on all occasions, where it is engaged with a Snake, whether poisonous or not. The one employed in this experiment was of the harmless kind, and procured for the purpose.'

It is to be wished that the author had specified the plant in question, (especially as it is afterward stated to be an antidote to the very active poison of the *cobra de capello*,) and that he had ascertained whether the animal has recourse to it only on being bitten by a Snake.

In his account of the Musk-rats, Mr. P. asserts that 'many articles are rendered entirely useless by the smell of musk which they communicate in merely running over them. For it is a certain fact, that of so penetrating a nature is their effluvia, that if they even pass over a bottle of wine ever so well corked and sealed up, it becomes so strongly tainted with musk that it cannot be used; and a whole cask may be rendered useless in the same manner.'

The birds of Ceylon include all our domestic poultry, except the Turkey; most of the species of feathered tribes which frequent our woods and marshes; and not a few that are peculiar to warm latitudes.

'Among a great variety of smaller birds, we particularly distinguish the Honey-bird. It is so called from a particular instinct by which it discovers the honey concealed in trees. As if designed for the service of the human species, this bird continues to flutter about and make a great noise till it has attracted the notice of some person, and induced him to follow the course it points out to him. It then flutters before him, till it has led him to the tree where the bees have lodged their treasure. The man then carries off the honey, leaving a little for the use of the bird, which silently and contentedly watches till it is permitted to enjoy its reward. As soon as it has eaten up its portion, it renews its noise, and goes in quest of another tree, followed by the man, who finds a guide here provided for him by nature.

'The Tailor-bird is particularly remarkable for the art with which it constructs its nest. This bird is of a yellow colour, not exceeding three inches in length, and slender in proportion. To prevent the

possibility of its little nest being shaken down, it contrives to attach it in such a manner to the leaves of the tree, that both must stand or fall together. The nest is formed of leaves which it picks up from the ground: and it contrives, by means of its slender bill and some fine fibres, which it uses as needle and thread, to sew these leaves to those growing on the tree with great dexterity. Hence it receives the name of the Tailor-bird. The lining, which consists of down, adds little to the weight of the nest, which is scarcely felt on the twig that supports it.'

The Swallows, of the same species with ours, never quit the island.

Serpents and insects are extremely numerous, to the great annoyance of the inhabitants: but the existence of the *Covra manilla*, which is represented as even more dreadful than the *Capello*, may perhaps be doubted. The Rock-snake measures from 20 to 30 feet in length, and is about the thickness of a man's thigh: but it is perfectly free from poison.—The woods and swampy grounds, especially during the rainy season, are grievously infested with a minute species of Leech, which is sometimes the cause of a man's bleeding to death.—Ants of various descriptions, particularly the white species, the black Scorpion, whose sting is frequently mortal, and the Centipede, which first bites and then stings, are likewise in the list of vexatious vermin. 'There is, moreover, an immense Spider found here, with legs not less than four inches long, and having the body covered with thick black hair. The webs which it makes are strong enough to entangle and hold even small birds, which form its usual prey.'

The lakes and rivers abound in fish: but no particular kind is mentioned, except the Mullet.—In the succeeding passage, we suspect some mis-statement:

'One circumstance has often struck me with astonishment, that in every pond or muddy pool, casually supplied with rain-water, or even only recently formed, and entirely unconnected with any other water, swarms of fishes are continually found. The only explanation which it appears possible to give of this phenomenon, is that the spawn is by some unknown process carried up with the rain into the skies, and then let down with it upon the earth in a condition immediately to become alive.'

We should be glad to know whether no spawn of any kind was deposited prior to the rain, when shallow water perhaps existed on the same spots; whether no superficial nor subterraneous communication could be traced with lakes or rivers, and the connecting canals speedily dried up by the powerful evaporation which prevails in tropical climates; or whether the supposed fishes were not Tadpoles or Water-lizards.

An

An enumeration of the vegetable productions of this island would present us with most of the fruits and plants which are found in similar latitudes. Of the Mango, one of the most delicious of Indian fruits, it is observed that no two, plucked from the same tree, resemble each other in taste and flavour.

A species of Palm, denominated the *Sugar-tree*, is found in several parts of the island:

'On cutting off the flower and making an incision in the place from which it sprung, a juice distils which by a slight process of boiling and straining yields as good a sugar as that extracted from the cane, and far superior to the jaggery. The commercial advantages to be derived from the proper cultivation of this plant need not be insisted upon; and experiments will no doubt speedily be made to ascertain whether this tree might not be made a substitute to the cane.

'But it is not sugar alone that Ceylon seems destined to afford to the general use of the Western world; the *Tea-plant* has also been discovered native in the forests of this island. I have in my possession a letter from an officer in the 80th regt. wherein he states that he had found the real tea-plant in the woods of Ceylon, of a quality equal to any that ever grew in China; and that it was in his power to point out to Government the means of cultivating it in a proper manner. The vast advantages to be derived from the cultivation of the tea-plant in our own dominions ought at least to prompt a speedy and vigorous experiment on the subject.

'The most beautiful species of the Palm kind which Ceylon produces is the *Talipot-tree*. This tree is very rare in other parts of India, and seems a peculiar blessing bestowed by Providence on this island. It grows very tall and straight: the wood is hard, and veined with yellow, and is employed in carpenters' work. The Talipot bears a large yellow flower, which, when ripe, bursts with a loud noise, and diffuses a disagreeable and unwholesome smell. It is on this account that the natives will not place their huts near it. The fruit is of a round form, and about the size of a cannon-ball: it contains two nuts of the same shape. But it is from its leaves that the talipot derives its high estimation. These hang downwards from the top, and present a most elegant and grand appearance. The leaf is completely circular, terminating in the most beautiful rays; it folds up into plaits like a fan, which in figure it nearly resembles. In size and thickness it completely surpasses always all other leaves. The breadth of the diameter is from three to four feet, and the length and thickness is in proportion: it is large enough to cover ten men from the inclemency of the weather. It is made into umbrellas of all sizes, and serves equally to protect the natives against the intolerable rays of the sun, and the rains which at particular seasons deluge their country. As it is of such an impenetrable texture as to defy either the sun or the monsoon, it affords a shelter even more secure than their huts. During the violent rains it is not unusual to see the natives prop up one end of a talipot leaf with a stick two or three feet long, and then creep under it for protection.

'The

'The *Banyan* tree, or, as it is frequently called the *Indian fig-tree*, is a native of Ceylon. It bears no fruit nor blossom, but grows to an immense size, and has some striking peculiarities in its appearance. It first rises to a great height in the air, and then drops its branches downwards. A vast number of roots are then observed to shoot forth from the lower extremities of the branches, where they continue suspended like icicles, till they at last fasten themselves in the earth. From these roots new shoots spring up, which in their turn become trees, and strike their branches into the ground. A whole grove is thus formed from one original stock; and the arches formed by the branches and the numerous interwoven shoots, come in time to have actually the appearance of grottos and excavations. The circumference of the grove arising from one stock has frequently been known to extend to several hundred feet.

'It is no wonder that the admirable shelter afforded by this noble tree should have pointed it out to the particular veneration of the inhabitants of the torrid zone. Indeed, without the assistance of its impenetrable shade, it is almost impossible that the numerous ceremonies enjoined by their superstition could have been at all performed. It is here therefore that we find the Brahmins and the devotees of their religion continually celebrating their rites. The pagodas are usually erected in the neigbourhood of this friendly shade, as well as the choultries prepared for the accommodation of the weary traveller. It is common for the Indian to take up his abode under this tree, and to remain stretched at his ease in the shade while every thing exposed to the rays of the sun is scorched with the intolerable heat.'

An interesting chapter is devoted to an account of the Cinnamon tree; and some important general hints are suggested with regard to the improvement of its culture.

The chapter on Mineralogy slightly notices about twenty sorts of precious stones, the existence of lead, tin, and iron ores, (which are not worked,) a small mine of quicksilver, and the hot wells of Cannia, of which the *negative* properties are sufficiently numerous.

The journal of the embassy to Candy presents little that is worthy of notice, which may not be found in the body of the work.

More than a century has elapsed since Captain Knox, who was detained a prisoner during nineteen years on the island of Ceylon, *gave* (to use the language of Robert Hooke) *a taste of his observations, in which most readers, though of very different gusts, may find somewhat very pleasant to their pallat.* Knox, in fact, sprinkled his history with some traits of the marvellous: but he wrote with *naiveté*, and collected many curious particulars, which the present writer has exhibited in a more modish form. If inclined to be hypercritical, we might also require of Mr. P. a more natural and obvious arrangement of his materials; the suppression of a few repetitions; more liveliness of relation;

relation; and a guarantee against *maltreating* * the purity and accuracy of the English language. We feel, however, sincere satisfaction in assuring our readers, that we have seldom perused a publication more replete with solid information, detailed in a clear and unaffected manner; and that the few remarks, which are interspersed in the narrative, are dictated by good sense, naturally arise out of the subject, and are directed to the welfare of an extensive settlement.

Muir.

ART. III. *Annotations on the Practical Part of Dr. Paley's "Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy."* By Edward Pearson, B.D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 8vo. pp. 163. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons.

How much soever philosophers may differ in stating the foundation of Moral Obligation, (a subject which was ably discussed in Mr. Pearson's "*Remarks on the Theory of Morals* †;") yet, as they universally admit that such Obligation exists, it is of more importance to consider the system of duty in detail, than to speculate on the abstract principle. Granting the basis of Morality to be the Will of God, it still becomes a question what that Will in all cases requires; and though we have the light of Revelation superadded to that of Reason, ethical writers are not agreed in their practical precepts. Dr. Paley's work, intitled "Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy ‡," has obtained sufficient reputation to become a text-book in the Universities; and Mr. Pearson used it for that purpose in giving a course of Lectures to the Students of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge: but, in the volume before us, we find that he no more uniformly subscribes to all the *practical*, than in his preceding publication he assented to all the *theoretical*, parts of Dr. Paley's treatise. He has no wish, however, to detract from the general merit of this performance; for he remarks that, as 'it was said of *Socrates* that he brought down Philosophy from the sacred abodes of the Gods to dwell with men on earth; so in like manner, it may be truly said of Dr. *Paley*, that he has brought Philosophy from the retreat of the learned into the walks of common life, and almost to the cradles of the young.' Still he deems him open to objections; and in these Annotations, which must be regarded as notes to the text-book, he has furnished a kind of supplement to Dr. Paley,

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* We have sometimes suspected that our author submitted his MS. to the revision of a friend beyond the Tweed.

† See M. Rev. Vol. xxxiv. N. S. p. 41.

‡ Ibid. Vol. lxxiii. pp. 133. 401.

which

which will evince his solicitude to impress on the minds of his pupils clear and correct ideas of moral duty: a subject which is far from having been adequately discussed.

Mr. Pearson commences his remarks with the 10th chapter of Dr. Paley's IId book, on *the Division of Rights*, observing that

'*Adventitious* rights, under which are comprehended all the institutions of civil society, are here very properly, and very clearly, made to depend on the *will of God.* Human laws, therefore, when made with a due regard to the welfare of mankind, may justly be looked upon as so many indications of the divine will delivered by the instrumentality of man. The consideration of this may serve to satisfy those persons, who object to an expression or two in a prayer for the *King*, which occurs in the Communion service; namely, "knowing whose minister he is," and "duly considering whose authority he hath." For, not to mention, that these expressions are entirely consonant to the phraseology of Scripture, they may thus be made appear to be agreeable to the plainest dictates of reason. I will add, that I always make use of this prayer, in preference to the next succeeding one, on the ground, that it contains the expression of our desires, that the *people* may perform their duty, as well as the *King*.'

Here, if we may be allowed, in our turn, to annotate on the Annotator, we should say that it does not follow that the language respecting the King in the prayer above mentioned is constitutionally correct, because human laws, when made with a due regard to the welfare of mankind, may in one sense be considered as indications of the divine will. The excellence of any one law, or the good administration of the laws in general, cannot be admitted in proof of the divine right of the Chief Magistrate; since an usurper may frame and execute wholesome laws. It is well known that the expressions in this prayer, included in parentheses, have been censured as intended to support an exploded doctrine; and it has been made a question whether, after the transactions of the Revolution, there can be any propriety in retaining them. We should not have inferred Mr. Pearson's preference of this composition, from the passage in his 30th of January Sermon, 1794, quoted at p. 97. We are thankful, however, that there is now no necessity for the discussion of this subject.

Apprehending that the remarks in this chapter, concerning the assertion of perfect rights by *force*, may tend to a mistake, the author subjoins a judicious comment; and, in order to facilitate the more clear comprehension of observations respecting Dr. Paley's *perfect* and *imperfect* rights and obligations, the following definitions are here given:

'1. A

'1. A *law* is a forcible rule of action.

'2. A *divine* or *moral* law, being an expression of the will of God, is that, which derives its force from the relation subsisting between God and his intelligent creatures.

'N. B. It follows, from this definition, that all *divine* precepts, being so many expressions of the will of God, are *laws*, i. e. *moral* laws.

'3. A *human* or *instituted* law is that, which derives its force from the hope of reward, or the fear of punishment.

'4. *Obligation* is that constraint to an action or forbearance from action, which is constituted by a *law*.

'5. A *moral* obligation is that, which is constituted by a *moral* law.

'6. A *legal* obligation (according to the common acceptation of the term) is that, which is constituted by a *human* law.

'7. An *imperfect* or *indeterminate* obligation is that, which is constituted by a *general* law.

'8. A *perfect* or *determinate* obligation is that, which is constituted by a *particular* or *specific* law.'

Agreeably to these definitions, Mr. P. would found the distinction between *perfect* and *imperfect* rights, and their corresponding obligations, on the *determinate* or *indeterminate* nature of them, rather than on the mode in which they may be asserted.

To the chapter on the *General Rights of Mankind*, this humane note is added:

'I think it right to add, that the permission to eat the flesh of animals does not extend to the inflicting on them any unnecessary pain; and that the infliction of any, either in the mode of preparing them for slaughter, or in the actual slaughter of them, whether from the want of due care, or for the sake of heightening the flavour of their flesh, must be a heinous offence in the sight of that Being, who wills the greatest possible happiness of *all* his creatures.'

On the subject of *Promises*, the annotator differs from his author, and with some reason:

'Dr. *Paley* thinks, that "it is the *performance* being unlawful, and not any unlawfulness in the subject or motive of a promise, which destroys its validity;" and therefore, that "the reward of any crime, after the crime is committed, ought, if promised, to be paid." This is a maxim, which, in my opinion, suits much better with a court of what the world sometimes miscalls *honour*, than with a court of *morality*. I say *miscalls* honour; for I would not be thought to say any thing in disparagement of *real* honour; that auxiliary of virtue, which, however it may elude the definition of the moralist, is sufficiently fixed by that of the poet:

"Honour's a sacred tie, the law of kings,
The noble mind's distinguishing perfection,
That aids and strengthens virtue, where it meets her,
And imitates her actions, where she is not."

Addison's Cato.

This maxim is, besides, inconsistent with Dr. *Paley*'s own rule of *general utility*; for though, in the particular case, in which the reward is paid, the "sin and mischief," as he observes, "are over, and will be neither more nor less for the performance of the promise;" yet the belief of an obligation to perform such promises would not fail, "upon the whole, at the long run," to encourage what it cannot be the will of God to encourage, similar instances of sin and mischief. It would, surely, be more conducive to the interests of society, as well as more consonant to sound morality, to lay it down as a maxim, that, from an action, which is founded in injustice, no claims of justice on the part of those, who are concerned in it, knowing it to be so founded, can possibly arise. Agreeably to this, *Hutcheson* says, "Humani generis interest, ut nulla sint ex pactis scelerum invitamenta; nullaque in istius-modi pactis fides." *Philos. Moral.* Inst. L. 2. C. 9.'

We pass over a variety of remarks which might be adduced in proof of Mr. Pearson's sagacity, to proceed to the chapter relating to *Subscription to Articles of Religion*, which has occasioned much embarrassment to the Clergy; who are not yet agreed respecting the moral duty which it implies and demands. After having observed that the *expediency* of requiring subscription is a question which belongs to the chapter on *Religious Establishments*, (of which, he adds, 'subscription to articles is the great support,') he considers the nature and extent of the *obligation* arising from such subscription, supposing it to be made:

'In order to ascertain this, Dr. *Paley* very properly inquires who is the imposer of subscription, and what is the intention of imposing it. After denying the character of imposer to the particular bishop, who receives the subscription, and to the compilers of the articles, he says, "The legislature of the 13th *Eliz.* is the imposer, whose intention the subscriber is bound to obey." Dr. *Powell*, on the contrary, who, on such a subject is first-rate authority, thinks, that "subscription to the articles is to be considered as meaning, what it is usually conceived to mean; not by the governors of the church, because they cannot properly be said to require that, which they have no authority to dispense with or alter; not by the legislature, because their sense we shall never be able to determine; but by the general voice of learned men through the nation." Discourse 2.

'Both these opinions I take to be wrong. With respect to the first, I have to observe in general, that neither the legislature of *Elizabeth*, nor that of any period preceding the present, has any authority to bind us, but what it receives from the sanction, expressed or implied, of the legislature of the present. If a law, passed at any former period, is suffered to remain unrepealed, we may, in ordinary cases, reasonably conclude, that it is the intention of the present legislature to continue it; but it is the latter circumstance alone, which lays us under an obligation to observe it. When it can be clearly collected, that it is not the intention of the present legislature to continue any law, that law is not binding on the conscience, even though it should remain

unrepealed. If this were not the case, there could be no such thing as a law wholly or in part *obsolete;* no such thing as an unrepealed law, which is not in its full original force. For an obsolete law is that, which it is the implied intention of the present legislature not to apply to *all* or *any* of the cases, to which it was at first intended to be applied. Thus the law of 5 *Eliz.* c. 20. against *gypsies,* for instance, was obsolete for many years before its repeal by 23 *Geo.* III. c. 51. Now, though a law, which is partly obsolete, is binding on the conscience as to that part, in which it is not obsolete, that is, in those cases, to which it may fairly be presumed to be the will of the legislature still to apply it; yet no one will say, that a law, which is wholly obsolete, is at all binding. I make these observations, not as being peculiarly applicable to the question before us, but with a view to show, generally, that it is to no purpose to refer us to the intention of a preceding legislature respecting any law, unless it be also made out, that the present legislature adopts that intention as its own. With respect to the question of subscription, it is necessary to distinguish between the obligation to subscribe the *articles,* and the obligation to subscribe them in a particular *sense.* The legislature for the time being, in continuing the Act of the 13 *Eliz.* c. 12. imposes the first; but the governors of the church, acting under the authority of the legislature, are to direct the second. The Act of 13 *Eliz.* requires candidates for holy orders to subscribe the thirty-nine articles, and directs, that "no ecclesiastical person shall advisedly maintain or affirm any doctrine directly contrary or repugnant to the thirty-nine articles." By virtue of which, the governors of the church cannot, so long as that Act, or others requiring and directing the same things, shall remain unrepealed, authorize any such persons to omit subscription, or to maintain or affirm any "doctrine directly contrary or repugnant to the thirty-nine articles;" because the governors of the church have no authority to do any thing contrary to the laws, customs, and statutes of the realm. It does not appear, however, that the legislature ever assumed to itself the right of fixing the *sense* of the thirty-nine articles; but rather that it intended, as in reason it ought, to leave that matter to the judgment of the governors of the church for the time being; that is, to the convocation of both houses acting under the king's assent; for this, as is asserted in the 139th canon, is "the true church of *England* by representation." Besides, as words are the expressions of opinions, and as, in the course of time, some change in the meaning of words must necessarily take place, there is need of a standing provision against the errors in opinion, into which a change in the meaning of words might otherwise lead men; and, in the case before us, this provision could not any where be so properly placed, as in the judgment of the governors of the church for the time being. Though, therefore, agreeably to what Dr. *Powell* says, the governors of the church have no power to dispense with subscription to the articles, or to alter the articles themselves, they have power to determine the sense, in which subscription to them is to be received. This is confirmed, if not in a manner proved, by the *declarations, injunctions,* and *directions* which, from time to time, have been issued by the king, as supreme head of the church, to the archbishops and bishops; particularly by the *decla-*

ration of king *Charles* 1. in which it is expressly said, that "the bishops and clergy from time to time in convocation, upon their humble desire, shall have licence, under our broad seal, to deliberate of and to do all such things, as, being made plain by them, and assented unto by us, shall concern the settled continuance of the doctrine and discipline of the church of *England* now established." In the same *declaration*, a prohibition occurs, with respect to the *sense* of the articles, "to preach or print any thing either way, other than is already established in convocation with our royal assent;" which is a virtual acknowledgment of a right vested in the convocation acting under the royal assent, to determine the sense of the articles; and, if that right was vested in the king and convocation of that day, it is undoubtedly vested in the king and convocation of the present day. Whatever, then, is the sense, in which the governors of the church for the time being allow, or may reasonably be supposed to allow, to be affixed to any article, that is to be considered as the true sense of it, or the sense, in which subscription to it may lawfully be made. Whether, since the articles were first framed, improvements in theological knowledge have been made, which may render it proper to affix a different sense on any article or not, it may very fairly be presumed to be the intention of the legislature at that time, and of the legislature at all times, that an opening should be left for such improvements, and for the effects, which they are naturally calculated to produce. If, for instance, by the third article, in which Christ's descent into *hell* is asserted, it be now understood, that his soul went into the place of *departed souls*, and the compilers of the articles, or the governors of the church in the time of *Elizabeth*, understood by it, either that his body was deposited in the *grave*, or that his soul went into the place of *torment*, can it be imagined, that any sanction, given by the legislature of *Elizabeth* to either of these senses, ought to hinder the governors of the church from allowing the article to be subscribed in the former sense? "That person," says *Bennet*, "who subscribes the word *hell* in a sense, which the church allows, though it be different from what it bears in some other places, or perhaps from what was first intended by the convocation itself, does very honestly." So also, if it could be made appear, which, I believe, it cannot, that the Calvinistic sense of certain articles was that, in which the governors of the church formerly understood, and wished to impose them, it would not follow, that we have not the liberty of subscribing to them in the sense, in which the present governors of the church may allow them to be understood, though that sense be not Calvinistic. I do not undertake to say what *is* the sense, in which the present governors of the church allow subscription to any particular article. That is not the business now before us. It is sufficient to say, that, since the clergy have been exhorted by the king, as supreme head of the church, to shut up all disputes in the "general meaning of the articles;" that meaning, as Dr. *Powell* explains it, "which, in some curious points of controversy, persons of every denomination have supposed to be on their side;" since it has been considered by him as matter of rejoicing, that "men of all sorts take the articles of the church of *England* to be for them;" and since these sentiments have never been disavowed, it is something more than probable, that the governors

vernors of the church allow the articles to be so understood, as to comprehend some *variety* of senses. If so, all those senses, in the view in which we are now considering them, have an equal claim to be admitted as true; for they all, though different in themselves, equally agree with that, which, in this case, is the proper standard of their truth.'

These remarks appear ingenious and liberal: but the mind is rarely pleased with itself when it is forced to employ such kind of casuistry; and granting it to be admissible, consistently with the purest morality, in its full extent, what is the utility of subscription, or how can it be the support of any system whatever? If a distinction is to be made between subscribing to *articles* and subscribing to their *sense*, the affair of subscription is completely nugatory, and even farcical. Supposing, moreover, that the sense of the articles is not fixed by the legislature; how unmeaning is that Act which directs that no ecclesiastical person shall maintain any doctrine *repugnant* to them? If their sense is to vary in different ages, how can they be said to promote uniformity, or to have any 'proper standard of their truth?' There can be little sound logic in such attempts; and however a divine may contrive to satisfy himself, by adroitness of argumentation, in subscribing a certain form in a sense different from its obvious and literal meaning, he would have been much better pleased if the necessity for such a subscription had not existed. The conversion of articles of *faith* into articles of *peace* may be deemed a happy thought: but the "sturdy moralist" will not sanction it by his *imprimatur;* though he may sigh over the hard case of those who are forced to avail themselves of such an expedient. It is curious to observe the contrarieties which stare us in the face on this subject. The articles are expressly asserted to be set forth for the purpose of preventing diversity of opinion; and yet it is said, that the governors of the church allow the articles to be so understood as to comprehend some *variety* of senses: that is, the very thing is allowed *in* subscription, for the prevention of which subscription is required. We recommend to Mr. P. the re-consideration of this subject; for pure morality is not always promoted by ingenuity.

Some good observations occur on *Resentment*, *Anger*, and *Revenge;* especially on the last: but for these and other moral strictures, we must refer to the work; concluding this article with expressing a wish that Mr. P. may be encouraged to publish the remaining part of his Annotations.

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ART. IV. *Natural Theology:* or Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature. By William Paley, D. D. Archdeacon of Carlisle. Fifth Edition. 8vo. pp. 586. Boards. Faulder. 1803.

WHEN it is asserted that Ignorance is the mother of Devotion, an insinuation is conveyed which is not more dishonourable to Religion than unfounded in Truth; for though Science is inimical to Superstition, it is very far from cherishing any hostility towards rational piety. Smatterers in philosophy, indeed, are apt to indulge in presumptuous conclusions, at which the friends of Religion have often taken alarm: but we are inclined to think that the impression, which these opinions have made, has been less considerable than it was apprehended to be. Since, however, all errors which have a dangerous aspect ought to be combated, we highly applaud the efforts of those who labour to give our thoughts a right direction, and to secure the rising generation against those sceptical and atheistical principles which may be disseminated in any of the writings or fashionable theories of the day. We cannot call these principles *novelties*, because they have often appeared and have been as often exploded: but, as at every repetition they are obtruded under the shape of discoveries in science, they are necessarily encountered with reiterated confutations.

Towards the beginning of the last century, many admirable defences of Natural Religion and Revelation appeared, which the boldness of Infidelity rendered expedient; and in the Sermons preached at Boyle's Lecture, and other publications of that period, the idea of Dr. Paley, in the work before us, was in a great measure anticipated. *Bentley's Sermons against Atheism; Clarke's Demonstration; Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation; Derham's Physico and Astro Theology*, together with *Abernethy's Discourses on the Attributes;* &c. &c. &c.; establish the great principles of Religion independently of Revelation:—but, of all the writings to which we allude, Derham's Physico-Theology bears the nearest resemblance in its plan to the Essay before us; forming, according to its title, "A Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God from the Works of Creation." We do not, however, mean to intimate that Dr. Paley has been a plagiarist; nor that the value of his Evidences is diminished by the labours of his predecessors. Their object was the same, they reasoned on the same ground, and they arrived nearly at the same conclusions: but, since Derham's time, Science has made a wonderful progress; and it is of importance to prove to the world that the advancement of true philosophy seems to strengthen

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our belief in the Existence of God, and of those Divine Perfections in which Natural and Revealed Religion must originate. Derham was encouraged in his undertaking by the patronage of Dr. Tennison, Archbishop of Canterbury, to whom he dedicates his Physico-Theology; and Dr. Paley, in his Dedication to the Bishop of Durham, (Dr. Barrington,) avows that he engaged in his present work at the recommendation of his Lordship. With this volume, Dr. P. has finished a series of valuable publications, making together a complete system; though, as he justly remarks, they ought to be read in the inverse order of their appearance; in which case, they will present, 1. Evidences of Natural Religion. 2. Evidences of Revealed Religion. 3. An Account of the Duties which result from both. Convinced of the infinite importance of a well-established faith in the principles of Natural Religion, and aware of the attempts which have been made to shake that faith by some, and to undervalue it by others, we regard this Disquisition from the pen of Dr. Paley as a very seasonable publication; and we are happy in thinking that the ability, with which it is executed, will insure it an extensive circulation.

It is impossible for us to comprehend the Nature of God: but his existence is sufficiently demonstrable, if we attend to those innumerable marks of design, and of adaptation of means to ends, which are so visible in the material universe; and though this general sentiment has been resisted by some individuals, both in antient and modern times, their efforts have been uniformly lame and unsatisfactory. In order to exclude the interference of a Creator, they have introduced Atoms and Organic Particles, which must be endued with a kind of intelligence and predilection, or be accompanied each by an attendant Sylph, to perform the task which is assigned to them; and, to explain the beauty and harmony of the creation, we are referred to the jumble of Atoms *, and to the surprising feats which may be performed by a happy combination of matter and motion. Cicero's answer to this idea is striking and conclusive, though it may not satisfy those who deal in infinite combinations, and in infinities of infinites. "Can any one (says he) suppose that, if innumerable sets of the letters of the alphabet were rattled together, and thrown on the ground ever so often, he should see them in any of these throws assuming the form of the Annals of Ennius? If, moreover, a world can be produced by a concourse of atoms, why cannot a portico, a temple, a house, or a city, be effected by the same means, which are

* *Mundum effici ornatissimum et pulcherrimum ex eorum corporum concursione fortuitâ.* Cic. *de Nat. Deor.*

works less operose and more easy?" The conclusion drawn hence cannot be resisted, except by denying that the Universe displays those proofs of a previous plan and design which are apparent in the productions of human art, and in pieces of mechanism. Here the Atheist and Theist are fairly at issue, and Dr. Paley pleads the cause of the latter with complete success. He does not, indeed, remove every difficulty, which is absolutely impossible in our state of limited knowlege: but he adduces facts sufficient to establish his position, and does not attempt to prove too much.

Dr. P. commences his discussion by stating the argument in a clear and popular manner:

'In crossing a heath, suppose I pitched my foot against a *stone*, and were asked how the stone came to be there, I might possibly answer, that, for any thing I knew to the contrary, it had lain there for ever: nor would it perhaps be very easy to shew the absurdity of this answer. But suppose I had found a *watch* upon the ground, and it should be enquired how the watch happened to be in that place, I should hardly think of the answer which I had before given, that, for any thing I knew, the watch might have always been there. Yet why should not this answer serve for the watch, as well as for the stone? Why is it not as admissible in the second case, as in the first? For this reason, and for no other, viz. that when we come to inspect the watch, we perceive (what we could not discover in the stone) that its several parts are framed and put together for a purpose, e. g. that they are so formed and adjusted as to produce motion, and that motion so regulated as to point out the hour of the day; that, if the several parts had been differently shaped from what they are, of a different size from what they are, or placed after any other manner, or in any other order, than that in which they are placed, either no motion at all would have been carried on in the machine, or none which would have answered the use, that is now served by it.'—'This mechanism being observed (it requires indeed an examination of the instrument, and perhaps some previous knowledge of the subject, to perceive and understand it; but being once, as we have said, observed and understood), the inference, we think, is inevitable; that the watch must have had a maker; that there must have existed, at some time and at some place or other, an artificer or artificers; who formed it for the purpose which we find it actually to answer; who comprehended its construction, and designed its use.'

'Suppose, in the next place, that the person, who found the watch, should, after some time, discover, that, in addition to all the properties which he had hitherto observed in it, it possessed the unexpected property of producing, in the course of its movement, another watch like itself; (the thing is conceivable;) that it contained within it a mechanism, a system of parts, a mould for instance, or a complex adjustment of laths, files, and other tools, evidently and separately calculated for this purpose; let us enquire, what effect ought such a discovery to have upon his former conclusion.'

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'The conclusion which the *first* examination of the watch, of its works, construction, and movement suggested, was, that it must have had, for the cause and author of that construction, an artificer, who understood its mechanism, and designed its use. This conclusion is invincible. A *second* examination presents us with a new discovery. The watch is found, in the course of its movement, to produce another watch, similar to itself: and not only so, but we perceive in it a system of organization, separately calculated for that purpose. What effect would this discovery have, or ought it to have, upon our former inference? What, as hath already been said, but to increase, beyond measure, our admiration of the skill, which had been employed in the formation of such a machine? Or shall it, instead of this, all at once turn us round to an opposite conclusion, viz. that no art or skill whatever has been concerned in the business, although all other evidences of art and skill remain as they were, and this last and supreme piece of art be now added to the rest? Can this be maintained without absurdity? Yet this is atheism.'

The Doctor then advances to the application of his hypothesis; affirming, as the proposition to be demonstrated, that

'Every manifestation of design, which existed in the watch, exists in the works of nature; with the difference, on the side of nature, of being greater and more, and that in a degree which exceeds all computation. I mean that the contrivances of nature surpass the contrivances of art, in the complexity, subtilety, and curiosity of the mechanism; and still more, if possible, do they go beyond them in number and variety: yet, in a multitude of cases, are not less evidently mechanical, not less evidently contrivances, not less evidently accommodated to their end, or suited to their office, than are the most perfect productions of human ingenuity.'

To impress conviction on the mind, in this respect, a rich variety of facts taken from natural history is adduced; and we are entertained with accounts of the succession of plants and animals, and of their functions mechanical and immechanical. To bring the matter home to ourselves, the arrangement discoverable in the human frame is particularly discussed; and Dr. Paley is so firmly persuaded of the irresistible force of the argument drawn from this source alone, that, if called to choose his ground, in the contest against Atheism, he would make his stand in human Anatomy. The structure of those wonderful organs, the Eye and the Ear, is amusingly detailed; and the Argument cumulative is thus exhibited in chap. 6:

'Were there no example in the world of contrivance, except that of the *eye*, it would be alone sufficient to support the conclusion which we draw from it, as to the necessity of an intelligent Creator. It could never be got rid of: because it could not be accounted for by any other supposition, which did not contradict all the principles we possess of knowledge; the principles according to which, things do, as often as they can be brought to the test of experience, turn out to

to be true or false. Its coats and humours, constructed, as the lenses of a telescope are constructed, for the refraction of rays of light to a point, which forms the proper action of the organ; the provision in its muscular tendons for turning its pupil to the object, similar to that which is given to the telescope by screws, and upon which power of direction in the eye, the exercise of its office as an optical instrument depends; the further provision for its defence, for its constant lubricity and moisture, which we see in its socket and its lids, in its gland for the secretion of the matter of tears, its outlet or communication with the nose for carrying off the liquid after the eye is washed with it; these provisions compose altogether an apparatus, a system of parts, a preparation of means, so manifest in their design, so exquisite in their contrivance, so successful in their issue, so precious and so infinitely beneficial in their use, as, in my opinion, to bear down all doubt that can be raised upon the subject. And what I wish, under the title of the present chapter, to observe, is, that, if other parts of nature were inaccessible to our inquiries, or even if other parts of nature presented nothing to our examination but disorder and confusion, the validity of this example would remain the same. If there were but one watch in the world, it would not be less certain that it had a maker. If we had never in our lives seen any but one single kind of hydraulic machine; yet, if of that one kind we understood the mechanism and use, we should be as perfectly assured that it proceeded from the hand, and thought, and skill of a workman, as if we visited a museum of the arts, and saw collected there twenty different kinds of machines for drawing water, or a thousand different kinds for other purposes. Of this point each machine is a proof independently of all the rest. So it is with the evidences of a divine agency. The proof is not a conclusion, which lies at the end of a chain of reasoning, of which chain each instance of contrivance is only a link, and of which, if one link fail, the whole falls; but it is an argument separately supplied by every separate example. An error in stating an example affects only that example. The argument is cumulative in the fullest sense of that term. The eye proves it without the ear; the ear without the eye. The proof in each example is complete; for when the design of the part, and the conduciveness of its structure to that design, is shewn, the mind may set itself at rest: no future consideration can detract any thing from the force of the example.'

The Bones and their moveable Joints, the Muscles and their action, and the Vessels of the human frame, with their various functions and fluids, are examined with an instructive minuteness. In speaking of the Tongue, including *the parts of the Mouth*, Dr. Paley takes occasion to combat a position of the late Mr. John Hunter; who asserted, in his Treatise on the *Lues Venerea*, that whenever Nature attempts to accomplish two or more purposes by one instrument, she does both or all imperfectly:

'Is this true (Dr. P. asks) of the tongue regarded as an instrument of speech, and of taste; or regarded as an instrument of speech, of taste, and

and of deglutition? So much otherwise, that many persons, that is to say, nine hundred and ninety-nine persons out of a thousand, by the instrumentality of this one organ, talk, and taste, and swallow, very well. In fact, the constant warmth and moisture of the tongue, the thinness of the skin, the papillæ upon its surface, qualify this organ for its office of tasting, as much as its inextricable multiplicity of fibres do for the rapid movements which are necessary to speech. Animals which feed upon grass, have their tongues covered with a perforated skin, so as to admit the dissolved food to the papillæ underneath, which, in the mean time, remain defended from the rough action of the unbruised spiculæ.

'There are brought together within the cavity of the mouth more distinct uses, and parts executing more distinct offices, than I think can be found lying so near to one another, or within the same compass, in any other portion of the body: viz. teeth of different shape, first for cutting, secondly for grinding: muscles, most artificially disposed for carrying on the compound motion of the lower jaw, half lateral and half vertical, by which the mill is worked: fountains of saliva, springing up in different parts of the cavity for the moistening of the food, whilst the mastication is going on: glands, to feed the fountains: a muscular constriction of a very peculiar kind in the back part of the cavity, for the guiding of the prepared aliment into its passage towards the stomach, and in many cases for carrying it along that passage: for, although we may imagine this to be done simply by the weight of the food itself, it in truth is not so, even in the upright posture of the human neck; and most evidently is not the case with quadrupeds, with a horse for instance, in which, when pasturing, the food is thrust upward by muscular strength, instead of descending of its own accord.

'In the mean time, and within the same cavity, is going on another business, altogether different from what is here described, that of respiration and speech. In addition therefore to all that has been mentioned, we have a passage opened, from this cavity to the lungs, for the admission of air, exclusively of every other substance: we have muscles, some in the larynx, and without number in the tongue, for the purpose of modulating that air in its passage, with a variety, a compass, and precision, of which no other musical instrument is capable. And, lastly, which in my opinion crowns the whole as a piece of machinery, we have a specific contrivance for dividing the pneumatic part from the mechanical, and for preventing one set of actions interfering with the other. Where various functions are united, the difficulty is to guard against the inconveniencies of a too great complexity. In no apparatus put together by art, and for the purposes of art, do I know such multifarious uses so aptly combined as in the natural organization of the human mouth; or where the structure, compared with the uses, is so simple. The mouth, with all these intentions to serve, is a single cavity; is one machine; with its parts neither crowded nor confused, and each unembarrassed by the rest; each at least at liberty in a degree sufficient for the end to be attained. If we cannot eat and sing at the same moment, we can eat

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one moment and sing the next; the respiration proceeding freely all the while.

'There is one case however of this double office, and that of the *earliest* necessity, which the mouth alone could not perform; and that is, carrying on together the two actions of sucking and breathing. Another route therefore is opened for the air, namely, through the nose, which lets the breath pass backward and forward, whilst the lips, in the act of sucking, are necessarily shut close upon the body, from which the nutriment is drawn. This is a circumstance, which always appeared to me worthy of notice. The nose would have been necessary, although it had not been the organ of smelling. The making it the seat of a sense was superadding a new use to a part already wanted; was taking a wise advantage of an antecedent and a constitutional necessity.'

Having considered the constituent parts of the animal frame, and stated his remarks on them separately, Dr. P. finishes with adverting to their collective action; observing that the wisdom of God is seen in their mutual subserviency and dependence, in their contributing *together* to one effect and one use.

The chapters on the *Animal Structure* regarded as a Mass; on Comparative Anatomy; on Peculiar Organizations; on Prospective Contrivances; on Relations of parts to parts; and on Compensations; are most interesting Lectures on Natural History: but in selecting from so copious a repast, we are under the necessity of omitting much that is excellent.

We have always thought that the argument in favour of a designing Cause, as the origin of the Universe, acquires additional strength from the *fitness* of one part of nature to another, if we may so express ourselves, or from the relation which animated bodies bear to inanimate nature, and *vice versâ*. The wings of birds possess a relation to the air, the fins of fish to the water, and the eye to light. Things are proportioned to one another, and animals are furnished with appropriate food, and suited to their respective elements. Dr. P. adduces the following striking instance of designed appropriation:

'To the singular element of *light*, an organ is adapted, an instrument is correctly adjusted, not less peculiar amongst the parts of the body, not less singular in its form and in the substance of which it is composed, not less remote from the materials, the model, and the analogy of any other part of the animal frame, than the element, to which it relates, is specific amidst the substances with which we converse. If this does not prove appropriation, I desire to know what would prove it.

'Yet the element of light and the organ of vision, however related in their office and use, have no connection whatever in their original. The action of rays of light upon the surfaces of animals has no tendency to breed eyes in their heads. The sun might shine for ever upon living bodies without the smallest approach towards producing the

the sense of sight. On the other hand, also, the animal eye does *not* generate or emit light.'

A chapter is employed on Instincts, and another on the Insect tribe; from the last of which we shall take one specimen:

'If the reader, looking to our distributions of science, wish to contemplate the chemistry, as well as the mechanism of nature, the insect creation will afford him an example. I refer to the light in the tail of a *glow-worm*. Two points seem to be agreed upon by naturalists concerning it: first, that it is phosphoric; secondly, that its use is to attract the male insect. The only thing to be enquired after, is the singularity, if any such there be, in the natural history of this animal, which should render a provision of this kind more necessary for *it*, than for other insects. That singularity seems to be the difference, which subsists between the male and the female; which difference is greater than what we find in any other species of animal whatever. The glow-worm is a female *caterpillar*; the male of which is a *fly*; lively, comparatively small, dissimilar to the female in appearance, probably also as distinguished from her in habits, pursuits, and manners, as he is unlike in form and external constitution. Here then is the adversity of the case. The caterpillar cannot meet her companion in the air. The winged rover disdains the ground. They might never therefore be brought together, did not this radiant torch direct the volatile mate to his sedentary female.

'In this example we also see the resources of art anticipated. One grand operation of chemistry is the making of phosphorus; and it was thought an ingenious device, to make phosphoric matches supply the place of lighted tapers. Now this very thing is done in the body of the glow-worm. The phosphorus is not only made, but kindled; and caused to emit a steady and genial beam, for the purpose which is here stated, and which I believe to be the true one.'

This account of the Glow-worm, in addition to the purpose for which it is related, may serve to afford the poet a brilliant idea: for what is it but Nature's Hymeneal torch?

After having examined the properties and economy of Plants, the author next treats of the Elements, and then takes a short notice of Astronomy; though his opinion has always been that 'Astronomy is *not* the best medium through which to prove the agency of an intelligent Creator.' Its objects are not so much within the sphere of our examination as those already discussed: yet, as far as our knowlege reaches, they not only manifest the stupendous power and glory of the Deity, but exhibit the most striking proofs of wisdom, order, and regularity. We do not comprehend the force of Dr. Paley's remark (p. 410.) that 'the heavenly bodies do not, except in the case of Saturn's ring, present themselves to our observation as compounded of parts at all.' Does not the solar system present itself to us as a whole compounded of parts, bearing an indisputable relation to each other? Are not our Earth and its

Moon, Jupiter and Saturn, and their Satellites, subordinate wholes compounded of parts? We know, it must be confessed, but little of astronomy; yet it is matter of real admiration that we understand so much as we do.

Having proved the pre-existence of Contrivance by his elaborate examination of the works of Nature, Dr. Paley observes that the primary doctrines of Natural Religion necessarily follow: the first of which is the Personality of the Deity, the second is his Unity, and the third is his Goodness: since contrivance implies a Contriver; the uniformity of plan or design exhibited in the works of Nature indicates the unity of the Deity; and from their beneficial tendency, as far as we can understand them, as well as from the existence of pleasurable sensations, his Benevolence or Goodness in course results. His Natural Attributes, viz. his Omnipotence, Omniscience, Eternity, Self-Existence, and Spirituality, are necessarily included in the doctrine of the Divine Existence.

Those objections which have been urged against the Goodness of God, and those difficulties which occur to us in attempting to refer all the appointments and operations of Nature to this cause, are fairly stated and discussed by Dr. Paley. He makes some observations on the two cases of *venomous* animals, and of animals *preying* on each other, to vindicate this economy as directed to ends of undisputed utility. On the first, he remarks that the faculty of inflicting venomous bites and stings is *good*, if regard be had to animals possessing it; and that in reference to their prey, it may serve to shorten the pain of death. Frogs and Mice may be swallowed alive by vipers without this mode of destroying them. But why are animals appointed to devour one another? An answer is prepared to this question, by which Dr. P. endeavours to shew that, as a general provision, this cannot be regarded as an evil. He observes that, without death, there could be no generation, no sexes, no parental relation, *i. e.* as things are constituted, no animal happiness; and that, considering the condition of brutes, who do every thing for themselves, as they must be robbed of life, it is preferable that it should be effected by the system of pursuit and prey, than that they should be tormented with gradual dissolution. He subjoins, however, another and more weighty reason:

'To do justice to the question, the system of animal *destruction* ought always to be considered in strict connection with another property of animal nature, viz. *superfecundity*. They are countervailing qualities. One subsists by the correction of the other. In treating, therefore, of the subject under this view, (which is, I believe, the true one,) our business will be, first, to point out the advantages which

which are gained by the powers in nature of a superabundant multiplication; and, then, to shew, that these advantages are so many reasons for appointing that system of animal hostilities, which we are endeavouring to account for.

'In almost all cases nature produces her supplies with profusion. A single cod fish spawns, in one season, a greater number of eggs, than all the inhabitants of England amount to. A thousand other instances of prolific generation might be stated, which, though not equal to this, would carry on the increase of the species with a rapidity which outruns calculation, and to an immeasurable extent. The advantages of such a constitution are two: first, that it tends to keep the world always full; whilst, secondly, it allows the proportion between the several species of animals to be differently modified; as different purposes require, or as different situations may afford for them room and food. Where this vast fecundity meets with a vacancy fitted to receive the species, there it operates with its whole effect; there it pours in its numbers, and replenishes the waste.'—

'This *superfecundity*, though of great occasional use and importance, exceeds the ordinary capacity of nature to receive or support its progeny. All superabundance supposes destruction, or must destroy itself. Perhaps there is no species of terrestrial animals whatever, which would not overrun the earth, if it were permitted to multiply in perfect safety; or of fish, which would not fill the ocean: at least, if any single species were left to their natural increase without disturbance or restraint, the food of other species would be exhausted by their maintenance. It is necessary, therefore, that the effects of such prolific faculties be curtailed.'—

'What further shews, that the system of destruction amongst animals holds an express relation to the system of fecundity; that they are parts indeed of one compensatory scheme, is, that, in each species, the fecundity bears a proportion to the smallness of the animal, to the weakness, to the shortness of its natural term of life, and to the dangers and enemies by which it is surrounded. An elephant produces but one calf: a butterfly lays six hundred eggs. Birds of prey seldom produce more than two eggs: the sparrow tribe, and the duck tribe, frequently sit upon a dozen. In the rivers we meet with a thousand minnows for one pike; in the sea, a million of herrings for a single shark. Compensation obtains throughout. Defencelessness and devastation are repaired by fecundity.

'We have dwelt the longer upon these considerations, because, the subject to which they apply, namely, that of animals *devouring* one another, forms the chief, if not the only instance in the works of the Deity, of an œconomy, stamped by marks of design, in which the character of utility can be called in question. The case of *venomous* animals is of much inferior consequence to the case of prey, and, in some degree, is also included under it.'

Though Dr. P. does not attempt an universal solution of the Origin of Evil, his views of this subject are extremely rational and consolatory. Our minds are somewhat reconciled to Imperfections,

perfections, pain, disease, death, and external evils, when they are contemplated through this philosophic medium.

The *distinctions* of civil life, he observes, are liable to be regarded as evils 'by those who *sit* under them, but in my opinion with very little reason;' and his explanation conveys so excellent a moral lesson, that we are induced to transcribe it:

'In the first place, the advantages which the higher conditions of life are supposed to confer, bear no proportion in value to the advantages which are bestowed by nature. The gifts of nature always surpass the gifts of fortune. How much, for example, is activity better than attendance; beauty than dress; appetite, digestion, and tranquil bowels, than the artifices of cookery, or than forced, costly, or far-fetched dainties!

'It is not necessary to contend, that the advantages derived from wealth are none, (under due regulations they are certainly considerable,) but that they are not greater than they ought to be. *Money* is the sweetener of human toil; the substitute for coercion; the reconciler of labour with liberty. It is, moreover, the stimulant of enterprise in all projects and undertakings, as well as of diligence in the most beneficial arts and employments. Now did affluence, when possessed, contribute nothing to happiness, or nothing beyond the mere supply of necessaries; and the secret should come to be discovered; we might be in danger of losing great part of the uses, which are, at present, derived to us through this important medium. Not only would the tranquillity of social life be put in peril by the want of a motive to attach men to their private concerns; but the satisfaction which all men receive from success in their respective occupations, which collectively constitutes the great mass of human comfort, would be done away in its very principle.

'With respect to *station*, as it is distinguished from riches, whether it confer authority over others, or be invested with honors which apply solely to sentiment and imagination, the truth is, that what is gained by rising through the ranks of life, is not more than sufficient to draw forth the exertions of those who are engaged in the pursuits which lead to advancement, and which, in general, are such as ought to be encouraged. Distinctions of this sort are subjects much more of competition than of enjoyment: and in that competition their use consists. It is not, as hath been rightly observed, by what the *Lord Mayor* feels in his coach, but by what the *apprentice* feels who gazes at him, that the public is served.'

Another difficulty with which Natural Theology is pressed, arising from so great an appearance of *chance* in the world, is well obviated by this rational Philosopher; who, in searching for a general solution of all those objections to the Divine Goodness which have been deduced from the evils of the present life, refers us to a view of it as a state of probation:

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'We assert the most probable supposition to be, that it is a state of moral probation; and that many things in it suit with this hypothesis, which suit with no other. It is not a state of unmixed happiness, or of happiness simply: it is not a state of designed misery, or of misery simply: it is not a state of retribution: it is not a state of punishment. It suits with none of these suppositions. It accords much better with the idea of its being a condition calculated for the production, exercise, and improvement, of moral qualities, with a view to a future state, in which these qualities, after being so produced, exercised, and improved, may, by a new and more favoring constitution of things, receive their reward, or become their own. If it be said, that this is to enter upon a religious rather than a philosophical consideration, I answer that the name of religion ought to form no objection, if it shall turn out to be the case, that the more religious our views are, the more probability they contain. The degree of beneficence, of benevolent intention, and of power, exercised in the construction of sensitive beings, goes strongly in favor, not only of a creative, but of a continuing care, that is, of a ruling Providence. The degree of chance which appears to prevail in the world requires to be reconciled with this hypothesis. Now it is one thing to maintain the doctrine of Providence along with that of a future state, and another thing without it. In my opinion, the two doctrines must stand or fall together.'

Connected with the doctrine of a Future State, is that of the Resurrection of the Body; to which Dr. P. discovers something analogous in the economy of Nature. In this respect, however, he is not original, and will not be generally deemed satisfactory. If he may be thought to have pushed his argument too far in some instances, and not far enough in others, he must be acknowleged so to have prosecuted his undertaking as to have added an additional laurel to his brow. In this volume, he may be said to have demonstrated the most important truths, to have induced us to view the Universe as the temple of the Deity, and to have inspired us with rational and indelible sentiments of Adoration. It must be delightful to the pious mind, to trace the perfections of the Creator written on the works of his hand; and to be assured that it is as much a principle of sound Philosophy as of Revelation, that *Religion is Wisdom.*

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ART. V. *The History of the Wars which arose out of the French Revolution:* To which is prefixed, a Review of the Causes of that Event. By Alexander Stephens, of the Honourable Society of the Middle Temple, Esq. 2 Vols. Large Quarto, fine Paper. pp. nearly 700 in each. 3l. 3s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

To detail the particulars of a warfare so extensive, so peculiar in its nature, and so important in its consequences,

as that which began with the declaration of war by France against the King of Hungary and Bohemia, and which closed with the treaty of Amiens, is certainly not an ordinary undertaking. The man who imposes on himself so arduous a task ought to be a favourite of the historic Muse, should possess skill in composition, be master of a simple flowing style, and yet have glowing language at command; he ought to have industry to brave the trouble necessary to clear up doubts, and to reconcile seeming contradictions, in order to form a luminous and consistent narrative; he should be endowed with sagacity to sound the measures of cabinets, the secret plans of commanders, and the deliberations of military councils; his mind, devoted to truth alone, ought to be superior to bias; his habits and studies should be such as are adapted to his subject; he ought to be well informed respecting the places which were the scenes of the exploits related, and he should have lived in habitual intercourse with the leaders and principal actors in the great drama which he sketches.

How far this member of an honourable society, who offers the present volumes to public notice, stands thus qualified for the high character in which he ventures to appear, our readers shall be enabled to judge by the extracts which we shall lay before them. For ourselves, however, we cannot refrain from declaring, that we discover in his pages little of the enthusiasm of genius, no indications of his having consumed the midnight oil in poring over the great masters of the historic art, no traces of that *improbus labor* so essentially requisite in the province which he has assumed, no zeal like that of old Froissart, nor any sagacity such as that which surprized the Duc d'Epernon when perusing the relations of Davila: nor can we acquit him altogether on the score of fidelity, since omissions occur in his accounts which must be ascribed to partiality; while it may be presumed that the purlieus of the Temple, and the contests of Westminster Hall, do not supply the best school for forming an historian of the revolutionary war.

The work is certainly extensive, and it is magnificent in its paper, type, &c.: but it seems to us to be principally a digest of former publications on the subject; though, at the same time, some of the most able and authentic of them have escaped notice. We have also to complain that the connection of the military with the civil history is not sufficiently traced; that, in the chain of events, important links are broken; that interesting traits are overlooked; and that the whole consists too much of a general abstract narrative.

If, however, we cannot allow to this performance, as a whole, the claim of superior merit, many of its parts deserve

serve commendation; and if the style cannot boast of high finish, it is in general clear and easy, and often animated. In several respects, the work forms a convenient repository, and will be deemed interesting and satisfactory by the great bulk of readers: but it might have been more acceptable in a modest and cheaper form, than in its present appearance in a garb of splendour, which becomes only the productions of eminent talents, and will recommend it only to those who consider a library merely as furniture.

If an author happens not to set any great value on his own labour, he should recollect that some of his readers may have no time to throw away, and that the price of books is high. Had these reflections duly operated on the mind of Mr. Stephens, he would probably have confined himself, in his elaborate preliminary discourse, to the immediate causes of the revolution; and would have spared himself the trouble of sketching the state of Europe from the time of the Romans to the present day.—It cannot be denied, to use the words of this author, that a large portion of Europe applauded the first attempts of the French to meliorate their political situation: but it may well be supposed that they regarded more the object, than the means used to attain it. If wise and good men, not examining narrowly the proceedings of the French agitators, gave their approbation to the early stages of the revolution, we do not see how it is possible that they should at this day feel pleasure in the recollection of them, or (with the author) refer to them with satisfaction, and talk of the glories of the 14th of July. At the moment, they were joyfully hailed because there was room for hoping that they might produce good: but now that their fruits have been seen, we are at a loss to conjecture what that ground can be, which can lead a rational being to describe them in the language of exultation. The historian of the revolutionary wars must, above all others, be aware of the incalculable ills which they produced to France and to Europe; of the check (probably fatal) which they gave to the ameliorations which at that period were progressive in every civilized state; of their having led to the overthrow of several independent governments, to the extinction of some of the most free and prosperous communities; and of their having terminated in the subjugation of the French nation itself, by creating an usurpation which, as it respects its subjects, has proved the most despotic and tyrannical,—which, as it respects foreign powers, seems by its very nature the permanent adversary of the spirit and arts of peace,—and which dissembles not its hostility against the remaining liberties and independence of Europe.

With many others, Mr. Stephens appears to be carried away by admiration for the Girondist faction: but, whatever might have been the merits of individuals, or the professions of the party, it is demonstrable that their ambition knew no bounds. We see that it led them to countenance the anarchists, whose victims they at length became, in opposition to the constitutionalists; that it induced them not merely to abet, but to instigate the insurrection of the 10th of August; to remain tranquil amid the horrors of that day, which proved not less fatal to their power than to the throne; to offer no opposition to, if they did not even share in, the legal murders which followed it; to be tame spectators of the massacres of September; and, in common with the partisans of Robespierre, to imbrue their hands in the blood of their monarch. The author is undoubtedly censurable for having drawn his materials solely from the advocates of the revolution, and for having overlooked those which were to be collected from the writings of respectable royalists and the consular courtiers. Had he perused the volumes of M. Bertrand de Moleville, or carefully examined the denunciations made in the legislative assembly itself, he would hardly have spoken of the Austrian committee as any thing else than a mere chimera.

Though the following picture of the political state of France, under the old government, is highly charged, truth will not justify us in softening it down in any great degree:

'A multitude of grievances existed, delinquencies of the most criminal nature had been long perpetrated with impunity, and the abuses were so numerous as to extend to every department of the state, and every province of the empire. The monarch affected to unite in his own person the executive and legislative authorities, and often interfered in the judicial administration. The finances were reduced to the most deplorable condition; and the nation, forgetting the immense expenditure of the late war, and the expensive schemes entered into for obtaining a port in the Channel, contemplated the profusion of the court, as the sole cause of their misery. The parliaments, although of late the victorious defenders of their own and the people's rights, had not always been able to withstand the blaze of majesty; and a royal session might at any time have rendered a determined king paramount to all resistance.

'The nation was thus left naked and defenceless, while the crown was armed with the support of custom and prejudice, a numerous nobility, all the dignified clergy, and an army of 150,000 men, a large portion of whom were foreigners.

'The Bastille, and a variety of subordinate prisons, had always opened their dreadful dungeons at the voice of a resolute prince; a free press, which leaves to a bad minister the choice of his duty or his dishonour, was still unknown; *lettres de cachet*, sold publickly towards the end of the late reign, had been granted during the early

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part of the present with the most scandalous impunity; and, however amiable, or however timid the present monarch might be, yet, according to the pretended rights of the crown, another Louis XI. might have fabricated new iron cages for his victims, or another Charles IX. perpetrated new massacres on his miserable subjects.

'Nor were the grievances of the people confined wholly to the exercise of the royal functions. The administration of justice was a source of continual censure and perpetual despair. The offices of the judicial magistrates were venal, and they were supposed to reimburse themselves, not only by fees and perquisites, but even by the sale of their decisions: to such a shocking pitch was this carried, that certain females, known by an appropriate name *, were employed to solicit favour from, and even to corrupt, the fountain of justice.

'The bulk of the people was overburdened with taxes, many of which were rather oppressive than productive; offices conferring nobility were publickly bought and sold; while the nobles were exempt from the operation of imposts, and the clergy contributed only what they pleased under the name of a *benevolence.*

'The occupations of the merchant and the farmer were considered as discreditable; the plebeians were excluded from all the high offices in the state, and the profession of arms, alone honourable, was consecrated to the enjoyment of a particular *cast:* to command a regiment, or a man-of-war, it was necessary to be a noble.

'Many of the rigours of the feudal system still disgraced the code and the practice of an enlightened nation. The game-laws were enforced with a barbarous, unfeeling, and unrelenting oppression: the death of a hare or a partridge was sometimes expiated by slavery in the galleys.

'The manerial claims were at once odious and degrading. In several of the provinces the possessor of a fief, under pretence of digging a pond, could rob such as held under, and displeased him, of a garden or an orchard. The right of *free warren* was carried to an alarming extent; the numerous dove-cots not unfrequently aided the artifices of the monopoliser to produce a dearth; the peasant beheld the rabbit, the pheasant, and the pigeon, devouring the fruits of his labours with impunity, while the scanty remnant of his harvest, after being diminished by ecclesiastical exactions, was to be ground at the mill of his lord alone.

'The farmers in the remote districts had reached but a single step beyond the boors of the northern nations. Tied down by the hand of poverty to the soil where they were born, while they maintained the clergy by their tithes, and assisted the nobles by their personal services, they were scarcely able to support their own families; and in years of famine, which frequently occurred, multitudes actually perished from want: nor was this all, for at the period of which we now treat, some of the inhabitants were actually in a state of bondage.

'* *Les Soliciteuses.*'

'The people being thus left entirely destitute of redress or protection; the royal authority paramount and unbounded; the laws venal; the peasantry oppressed; agriculture in a languishing state; commerce considered as degrading; the publick revenues farmed out to greedy financiers; the publick money consumed by a court wallowing in luxury, and every institution at variance wish justice, policy, and reason: a change became inevitable in the ordinary course of human events, and, like all sudden alterations in corrupt states, was accompanied with temporary evils and crimes, that made many good men look back on the ancient despotism with a sigh.'

In his accounts of the 14th of July and the 5th of October, 1789, Mr. S. appears to us to be much too studious to cloak and palliate the enormities committed by the populace on those memorable days. The original sin of the first assembly seems to have consisted in the reliance which it placed on popular favour, and the encouragement which it gave to popular excesses; and it was this conduct which, though for a time it asserted its views, ultimately rendered all its efforts abortive, and produced the disastrous termination of the revolution.

The author gives credit to the professions of the French, that they did not seek conquests: but we fear that these were always hollow; and there can be no doubt that such were those made by the Brissotin faction, as proclaimed in a public paper written by Condorcet. This species of abjuration supposes a depth of wisdom, and a degree of self-denial, little allied to the national character; and the occurrences of the day, such as the incorporation of Avignon, of the Comptât de Venaissin, and of Savoy, as well as their subsequent conduct, strongly militate against their claim to the merit of such forbearance.

After the introduction, these volumes are divided into ten books; the first of which embraces the period from the commencement of the war to the King of Prussia's retreat. The effects of the Duke of Brunswick's manifesto are stated with equal force and justice:

'France, already threatened with civil as well as foreign war, and apparently abandoned to the horrours of anarchy, profited on this occasion by the folly and presumption of her enemies. Such a gross outrage to national honour, instead of depressing, aroused the energy of the people. As all were equally deemed objects of vengeance, all became united. As no distinction was made between the friend of the constitution and the zealot of democracy; as no line was drawn, so as to separate the mildest advocate for a limited monarchy, from the most furious partisan of plunder and revolt; every party was alike assailed, and their common safety depended on their conjunction. Men of the most opposite sentiments were now taught

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to unite for the first time. The Brissotins and the Maratists, the Jacobins and the Feuillants, the constitutionalists and the anarchists, were alike desirous to rescue France from a foreign yoke; while some even of the royalists, unable any longer to conceal their resentment at the indignity offered to the honour of their country, were ready to adopt the most vigorous measures, in order to vindicate its independence.'

The observations which close this book are sanctioned by the authority of the best judges of matters of this sort:

'In whatever point of view the invasion of France is to be contemplated, it appears to have been not a little censurable in respect to the manner in which it was conducted, as the operations neither exhibited the degree of celerity necessary to a sudden conquest, nor that happy discrimination which could alone have ensured success to a regular and scientifick attack.

'The moment that Dumouriez had been forced by his own misconduct to abandon the strong position at Grandprey and retire to St Menehould, the combined forces might have marched directly to Chalons, where they would have obtained possession of all his magazines, and avoided the famine and diseases that awaited them in the deserts of Champagne. In that case also, the invading army would have occupied an advanced position between the French troops and the capital, which it might have reached before them; and, had a victory been necessary to sanction such a measure, instead of trifling away so much precious time in festivals at Verdun, the Prussians ought to have given battle before the junction of Kellermann and Beurnonville had rendered the event in some degree problematical.

'But even then, perhaps, it was not too late for veteran soldiers and experienced generals to have overcome an inferior number of new levies headed by untried commanders: this however was not to be achieved by a few indecisive manœuvres and a distant cannonade, such as occurred at Valmy; for these infallibly serve to inure new troops to danger, and teach them at the same time to despise it.

'On the other hand, had a more regular plan been adopted, as was at first intended, Sedan, Montmedy, and Thionville, ought to have been invested according to the rules of war, after which winter-quarters would have been obtained in Lorraine, and, if the confederates did not quarrel in the interval, the campaign might have been concluded in the ensuing spring. But while the original plan was conceived with vigour, the new measures, although rash in their own nature, were at the same time slow, languid, and inefficacious; and both the troops and treasure of the great Frederick were improvidently wasted in an expedition which reflected but little glory on his successor.

'The nominal command of the grand army had undoubtedly been conferred on the greatest captain of his age; his opinions, however, were unceasingly counteracted by the projects of contending politicians, the intrigues of interested favourites, and the jealousies of rival princes. Had the duke of Brunswick been permitted to con-

duct the operations of the campaign without controul, that general perhaps would have effected for the Bourbons what Alberoni, the czar Peter the Great, Charles XII., Louis XIV., and Louis XV., attempted in vain to achieve for the Stuarts; but even in that case we should probably have beheld France dismembered by the victors, and the outrageous principles of an over-weening despotism inculcated and professed by every cabinet in Europe.'

In this, as in other parts of his work, the author does not seem to entertain a sufficient distrust of Dumouriez's account of his own life; a publication to which the historian must doubtless recur, but which is of little authority, except when corroborated by notoriety of facts, or by concurrent testimony.

The IId book narrates the splendid campaign of Dumouriez in the Netherlands.

Book IIId states the dangers to which the new republic, while as it were in its cradle, was exposed; and it gives an account of the critical period when the Netherlands had been recovered by the allies, and the frontier towns of France had been captured; while the convention was rent by fierce irreconcileable factions, and civil war raged in the bowels of the state, some of the most wealthy and populous departments having hoisted the standard of revolt.

We copy a part of the author's narrative, which describes the extreme danger into which the young republic had been brought, with the extraordinary means taken to extricate it, and records a memorable instance of British bravery:

'While the republick was thus a prey to intestine disorders, the capture of Valenciennes, and the forced retreat of the wreck of the French army from under the protection of Cambray, seemed once more to present a fair opportunity to the combined forces of marching to the capital, and deciding the fate of the empire. Certain it is, that so long as such an imposing mass remained together, nothing could withstand its efforts; and that it was only by its division that it could be overcome. But the allied courts appear at this moment to have been dazzled with their success, and to have entertained separate views of aggrandisement, which but ill accorded with those principles on which they had professed to act. Two of the chief fortresses in the French Netherlands were already in possession of the emperour; and it was now determined by the English cabinet to re-annex part of the maritime Flanders to the crown of Great Britain. Accordingly, while the Austrians undertook the siege of Quesnoy, with a view to increase their acquisitions in that quarter, the duke of York, at the head of the English troops, and a body of Dutch and Hanoverians, advanced and occupied a camp in the neighbourhood of Menin.

'Never was any country reduced to such a desperate situation as France at this critical moment. A multitude of the most courageous

geous friends of liberty were imprisoned, and a large portion of the convention either arrested, put to death, or proscribed. Forty thousand royalists in the west triumphed over the ignorant generals and undisciplined armies exposed to their rage. In the north, the Austrians, after subduing Belgium, menaced the capital; in the south, Lyons and Marseilles were scarcely subdued; and Toulon was known to be already in possession of a British admiral. In every quarter the enemies of the republick were victorious. The king of Prussia, after driving the French from Franckfort and Costhiem, had obtained Mentz. A large army was preparing to force the lines of Weissembourg. The empire had declared war against France. Landau was blockaded; Strasburgh menaced; the territories bordering on the Pyrenées were overrun by the Spaniards; the colonies in the East and West Indies were either already conquered or threatened with immediate subjection by the English, while the French flag was no longer seen in the Channel, the Atlantick, or the Mediterranean.

'But the energy of the jacobins was admirably calculated to contend with, and even to overcome, obstacles that at any other period, and perhaps to any other men, would have appeared insurmountable. The industry, the wealth, and even the lives of near thirty millions of inhabitants were placed by various decrees at their disposal. Recurring to terrour as the most powerful engine, they employed a revolutionary tribunal, a revolutionary army, and stationary as well as ambulatory guillotines, to repress and punish all those who opposed their authority. Bastilles, under a new name, contained the citizens liable to suspicion; and a multitude of spies, informers, and executioners, carried fear into every house and into every bosom. No one was either exempt from dread or from punishment. An obnoxious deputy suffered as a federalist; the noble was accused of emigration; the lawyer perished as a traitor, the banker as a counter-revolutionist, the merchant as a forestaller. Safety was to be found nowhere but in the armies; and immense multitudes repaired thither for protection.

'As all the rich were become objects of suspicion, their treasure was confiscated at pleasure, and employed sometimes in behalf of the commonwealth, but not unfrequently squandered away according to the caprice of interested individuals. Crimes of all kinds were encouraged. Pity and humanity were devoted to infamy, and not unfrequently to the scaffold; it was dangerous to indulge the cry of nature; the father durst not assist his exiled son; the child could not contribute to the support of his imprisoned father with impunity; civick crowns were voted to spies deserving of punishment, and France appeared to have erected altars to ingratitude and injustice, at the very moment she was preparing to repress and annihilate her foes.

'But even amidst the sanguinary excesses of the triumphant party, it is impossible not to admire the energetick measures adopted against the foreign enemy. In consequence of a report from the committee of publick safety, all Frenchmen were declared, by a solemn decree of the convention, to be at the service of their country until its ene-

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mies should be chased from the territories of the republick. "The young men shall march to the combat; the married ones shall forge arms and transport the provisions; the women shall fabricate tents and clothes, and attend the military hospitals; the children shall make lint to serve as dressings for the wounds of the patriots; while the old men shall cause themselves to be carried to the publick squares to excite the courage of the warriors, to preach the unity of the republick, and inspire hatred against kings."

'To supply the wants of the immense armies now about to be collected from all quarters, measures of a new and extraordinary kind were adopted. Assignats were not only fabricated and expended in immense quantities, but their value was maintained for some time at a rate nearly equivalent to that of gold; and when this resource began to fail, revolutionary taxes were imposed. The doctrine of requisition was at length recurred to, and all the necessaries of life appertaining to citizens in easy circumstances, were seized upon in the name of the republick, and for the support of its troops, while the great cities were crowded with manufactures of saltpetre, the towns converted into foundries, and the ancient palaces metamorphosed into arsenals to supply the elements of destruction.

'At the very moment that the idea of a nation's rising *in mass* was ridiculed throughout Europe, the convention, on the proposition of the committee of publick safety, had either augmented or created eleven distinct armies, which seemed to form a chain around the frontiers of France. All the unmarried males from eighteen to forty years of age were put in permanent requisition, and a draft of three hundred thousand made at one time. These immense resources enabled them to strengthen and new-model the army of the north, extending from Dunkirk to Maubeuge; that of the Ardennes, reaching from Maubeuge to Longwy; that of the Moselle, from Longwy to Bitche; that of the Rhine, from Bitche to Porentrui; that of the Alps, from the Aisne to the borders of the Var; that of Italy, from the Maritime Alps to the mouth of the Rhone; the army of the Oriental Pyrenées, from the mouth of the Rhone to the Garonne; the army of the Western Pyrenées, from the department of the Upper Pyrenées to the mouth of the Gironde; the army of the coasts of Rochelle, from the mouth of the Gironde to that of the Loire; the army of the coasts of Brest, from the mouth of the Loire to St. Maloes; and, lastly, that of the coasts of Cherbourgh, from St. Maloes to the northern department.

'No sooner did the French learn that the combined forces intended to separate, than they determined once more to resume offensive operations, and overcome that military colossus in its disjointed state, which they had been unable to contend with entire. Advantage was taken of the inactivity of the Prussians after the conquest of Mentz, and drafts were accordingly made from the armies of the Rhine and the Moselle, while the new levies were clothed, embodied, and disciplined. A plebeian general, who had ascended through all the various military gradations, from the station of a trooper to the chief command, was assigned to them at the same time for their leader: this was Houchard, already celebrated by his

exploits in Germany; and who, after possessing in succession the command of the forces stationed on the banks of the Rhine and the Moselle, was now placed at the head of the army of the north.

'The French having attacked Lincelles, a post lately taken and occupied by command of the hereditary prince of Orange, major-general Lake, with three battalions, consisting of the first, Coldstream, and third regiment of guards, was sent to the assistance of the Dutch troops, who had unluckily retreated by a different road. But notwithstanding this discouraging circumstance, and the manifest superiority of the enemy, an immediate attack was determined upon. The English were accordingly formed, and advanced under a heavy fire against a redoubt of uncommon size and strength, erected upon a height in front of the village. After firing three or four rounds, they charged with bayonets, stormed the works, drove out the enemy, dispersed them after they had rallied, and took eleven pieces of cannon, and about fifty prisoners *.'

The IVth book relates the reduction of Lyons, the recapture of Toulon, and the turn given to the war by Pichegru and Hoche. In the history of the memorable siege of the latter place, the inauspicious name of Napoleone Bonaparte first occurs:

'Dugommier, a general who had already distinguished himself by his victories over the forces of the king of Sardinia, was now appointed commander in chief; and as the surrender of the great naval arsenal of the south greatly depended on the management of the immense artillery employed against it, great pains were taken to find an engineer every way worthy of the occasion. Such a person was at length discovered in Napoleone Bonaparte, an obscure Corsican, who had been educated at the military academy in France, and served as a lieutenant in the regiment of La Fere. Having fled from the troubles that prevailed in his native island, he now offered his services, and was employed by the deputy Barras, on the recommendation of his countryman Salicetti, and contributed not a little by his military talents to decide both the fate of Toulon and of France.

'The very first operation was decisive of success. Knowing that the possession of Malbousquet, one of the principal outposts of Toulon, would enable him to bombard the town and arsenal, Bonaparte accordingly opened a strong battery of heavy cannon and mortars on the height of Arenes, which annoyed that position exceedingly, by means of an incessant fire of shot and shells.'

It appears from the subsequent part of the narrative, that to this disposition was owing the successful termination of the siege, which so quickly followed.

'* The London Gazette Extraordinary states, "from the concurring testimony of the prisoners, that the enemy had twelve battalions at the post, and must have been upwards of five thousand men."

Book

Book v. details the brilliant successes which attended the efforts of the republicans in the campaign of 1794-5:

'This campaign, with an exception to the ocean and the Mediterranean where it was eminently disastrous, and to La Vendée where success still appeared equivocal, proved highly favourable to France, in every part of Europe. Several pitched battles, and a multitude of skirmishes, had not only restored all the fortresses on the northern frontier, but destroyed near one hundred thousand of her enemies, and subjugated many millions of inhabitants. Holland, with her numerous fleets, her extensive commerce, and her wealthy merchants, readily submitted to her sway; Germany had been forced to yield the two ecclesiastical electorates of Cologne and Treves, the principality of Liege, the duchy of Deux Ponts, the bishopricks of Worms and Spires, and part of the Palatinate; Prussia was unable to resume the duchies of Cleves and Juliers; from Italy had been wrested Nice, Monaco, all Savoy, and part of Piedmont; while Spain had not only lost the provinces of Guipuscuoa and Catalonia, but was in some measure at the mercy of the conquerour.'

The effects of the French revolution with reference to our own country are thus stated:

'At this awful epoch, most of the neighbouring potentates seem to have been alarmed for their own personal safety, and to have held in dread the increasing knowledge of the age. Such was their scrupulous jealousy, that in some countries clubs of all kinds were prohibited; literary societies were abolished; learning, science, and superiour abilities, became objects of suspicion. Even in Britain, the upper ranks of society, partly influenced by the donatives so profusely bestowed in the shape of honours, pensions, and employments, and partly terrified by the supposed atheism and acknowledged crimes of those who for a time had governed France, became jealous of the liberties of their native country. The greedy capitalist trembling for his wealth, the rapacious courtier panting after preferment, the new-made peer indignant at beholding the growing contempt of titles, the ancient nobility mortified to think that talents began to be preferred to blood,—all these, under the seductive appellation of a *strong government*, sighed after something approximating to an absolute monarchy. The distresses of the people too began to be alarming; parochial relief could not extend to all their wants; publick subscriptions were recurred to, on purpose to equalise the price of labour with the price of provisions; and England, whose sturdy peasantry had hitherto been the reproach of other nations, was soon threatened with a degree of degradation approaching to the Helotism of ancient Sparta.

'Nor was this the only mischief, for the *Habeas Corpus* act had been suspended, and the prisons were crowded with men accused of disaffection and treason. Conspiracies more frequent and more strange than those that once actuated the fertile brain of Titus Oates, were supposed to have been hatched, and the meal-tub plot during the reign of Charles II. was surpassed in novelty and extravagance by the pop-gun machinations against George III.

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'In Scotland, political opinions were punished by banishment to distant and inhospitable regions; in England, several unsuccessful attempts were made to render them capital: but what was still more terrible, seclusion, as in the time of the Stuarts, began to be practised on those accused of delinquency against the government; and while the general voice yet applauded the destruction of the Bastille in France, a prison, which from an obvious similarity soon obtained that odious name, was reared in the vicinity of the British metropolis, and its police entrusted to a man who, according to report, was worthy of being provost to the palace to Louis XI. A young senator * of considerable promise exposed these malpractices in a manner that made a forcible impression upon the publick; and had he been properly seconded by the opposition, the nuisance would have either been removed or abated.

'But while the ministry, a prey perhaps to the terrours arising from their own unpopularity, as well as from the nature of the contest in which they had engaged, were filling the gaols with the victims of suspicion, it must be allowed that they deserved credit for the energy with which they provided for the internal defence of a kingdom that now began in its turn to be menaced with invasion. Not only was the militia greatly augmented, but numerous volunteer and fencible *corps*, both of infantry and cavalry, were everywhere formed; batteries were erected, and companies of artillery trained along the coasts; while the immense superiority of the navy was everywhere conspicuous, and the narrow seas, the Atlantick and Pacifick oceans, as well as the Mediterranean, beheld the triumph of our fleets.

'Every idea of peace was, however, treated with the most supercilious contempt; and hopes were still entertained and propagated that a nation "not only on the brink but in the very gulph of bankruptcy" would soon be subjugated. "Indemnity for the past and security for the future" began to be the cry; and the matchless eloquence and enormous expenditure of the premier threatened alike to protract the contest. All motions of a pacifick tendency in the course of this session of parliament were accordingly negatived.'

[*To be continued.*] **Jo.**

ART. VI. *Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth.* By John Playfair, F.R.S. Edin., and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 528. 10s. Boards. Edinburgh, Creech; London, Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THE inquiries of the Geologist, though extremely curious and fascinating, scarcely afford the expectation of arriving at any satisfactory general conclusions concerning their peculiar objects: but they have been eminently serviceable in mineralogy, and have created a stimulus which has tended to the industrious accumulation of a great number of singular

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* Sir F. Burdett.'

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and interesting facts respecting the natural history of the Earth.—The Geological world has been long divided between the *Vulcanic* and *Neptunian* systems, in which the various phænomena of the mineral kingdom are supposed to be produced by fire or by water: while the insufficiency of both those systems to reconcile many appearances, that have been observed, gave rise to a new theory, in which the agency of both fire and water is employed; and which was suggested some years ago by Dr. Hutton, an intrepid and indefatigable Philosopher, of Edinburgh, who himself laid it before the world in an elaborate and extensive publication. His work was not, however, sufficiently popular and perspicuous, to receive general attention; and therefore, from a wish to present it in a more familiar and intelligible point of view, Mr. Playfair has written the present interesting Treatise, which his long habits of intimacy with Dr. Hutton, united to his well-known learning and abilities, rendered him peculiarly well qualified to undertake.

In arranging his materials, the author has first given the principles of this system, and has afterward subjoined, in the form of notes, such farther illustrations as particular subjects might be thought to demand. The mineral kingdom he considers as divided into two parts, namely, *stratified* and *unstratified* substances; and in following this division, he first treats of the phænomena peculiar to the stratified, next of those peculiar to the unstratified, and, lastly, of such as are common to both. Pursuant to his arrangement, he commences with the first head, which he divides into three branches, viz. the *materials*, *consolidation*, and *position* of the strata.

With regard to the *materials of strata*, it is generally allowed that they have had their origin at the bottom of the sea, from the marks which they bear of having been deposited by water. Dr. Hutton admits this idea, but he also lays it down as a fundamental proposition, 'That in all the strata we discover proofs of the materials having existed as elements of bodies, which must have been destroyed before the formation of those of which these materials now actually make a part.' This proposition he considers as proved from various circumstances. Calcareous strata present appearances, either of being solely composed of corals, shells, or other marine exuviæ; or of having originated from the demolition of some antient rocks, the fragments of which seem to have been united in an irregular way. Siliceous strata, particularly pudding-stones and breccias, appear in many cases to be composed of various fragments agglutinated together; and as these are frequently round and polished, he concludes that they must, at some time, have been exposed to attrition. This, however, could only take

take place near the shore, and never in deep water, where there is little motion; and hence it appears to him, that there is sufficient evidence of seas and continents having existed previously to the formation of the present strata. Argillaceous strata likewise occasionally contain impressions of vegetable and animal substances; and pitcoal frequently bears unequivocal marks of its vegetable origin. Where there are no distinct marks of vegetable organization in the latter, Dr. H. supposes it to have originated from the precipitation of oily and fuliginous particles set loose by burning, and from their subsequent deposition at the bottom of the sea, where they at length formed strata with the earthy substances with which they were mingled. Primitive, or rather, as Dr. Hutton would term them, primary stratified rocks, which lie below the secondary now mentioned, do not afford, in his view, an exception to these conclusions; since they also frequently contain marks of animal exuviæ. The *consolidation* of the strata thus deposited at the bottom of the sea, could not, Dr. Hutton imagines, have been effected by water alone; because, 1st, water could not entirely banish the porosity of the mass; 2dly, it must have been able to dissolve all the substances which are afterward deposited, which it cannot do in the case of quartz, feltspar, fluor, and many others; and 3dly, if a solution were produced, some unknown cause must operate in occasioning a disposition to crystallize, without evaporation.

Dr. H. regards consolidation as readily producible by fire, particularly when applied to matter strongly pressed by the sea.

'The tendency of an increased pressure on the bodies to which heat is applied, is to restrain the volatility of those parts which otherwise would make their escape, and to force them to endure a more intense action of heat. At a certain depth under the surface of the sea, the power even of a very intense heat might therefore be unable to drive off the oily or bituminous parts from the inflammable matter there deposited, so that, when the heat was withdrawn, these principles might be found still united to the earthy and carbonic parts, forming a substance very unlike the residuum obtained after combustion under a pressure no greater than the weight of the atmosphere. It is in like manner reasonable to believe, that, on the application of heat to calcareous bodies under great compression, the carbonic gas would be forced to remain; the generation of quicklime would be prevented, and the whole might be softened, or even completely melted; which last effect, though not directly deducible from any experiment yet made, is rendered very probable, from the analogy of certain chemical phenomena.'

An analogy of this kind was suggested by Dr. Black; who found that carbonate of barytes may be fused at a certain considerable heat, but that, if the temperature is farther increased, the carbonic acid gas is driven off, the earth loses its fluidity, and

and appears in a caustic state. 'This escape of the fixed air is exactly what the compression in the subterraneous regions is calculated to prevent, and therefore we are not to wonder if, among the calcareous strata, we find marks of actual fusion having taken place.' On the fusibility of other substances, less doubt, he thinks, can be entertained; because even siliceous earth has been softened, though never entirely melted, by heat.

The following are some of the facts by which the doctrine of fusion is supported.—Fossil wood has been frequently found penetrated by siliceous matter.—The same is observable in chalk-beds, into which it may be supposed that melted flint has been forcibly injected, which on cooling formed distinct nodules.—Siliceous pudding-stone consists of pebbles, united by a flinty cement, which seems to denote that a stream of melted flint had been thrown among a mass of loose gravel.—The firm and close union of the quartzy sand, which occurs in some species of sand-stone, could hardly be produced without incipient fusion.—That the calcareous earths have also been subject to fusion, Dr. Hutton considers as proved by the highly crystallized structure of the finer kinds of marble, and by many breccias being not only adapted to each other's shape, but indented into one another like the sutures of the human cranium.—The fusion of argillaceous strata is supported by the structure of septaria, which are usually of a lenticular or sphæroidal shape, and in which there are veins of calcareous matter terminating before they reach the surface of the stone. The calcareous matter, in this case, he imagines, could not be introduced by filtration, nor in any other way but fusion.

Dr. Hutton is of opinion that bituminous strata could not have been consolidated by means of water, on account of the frequent interspersion of pyrites in their substance, which is destroyed by moisture, and resolved into a vitriolic salt. He explains how these strata can be exposed to heat, without a separation of their bitumen, from the pressure above mentioned; which, though in general able to prevent it from flying off, cannot always do so; and hence coal is sometimes found which burns without flame. When the bitumen has escaped, Dr. H. supposes it to have given rise to the well-known fountains of Naphtha and Petroleum, and to that tinge through the substance of lime-stone which is occasionally observed.

Another argument Dr. Hutton derives in support of his theory of consolidation, from the quantities of rock-salt occasionally found in beds; and from soda or natron being sometimes found which does not effloresce, and which contains less than its usual quantity of water of crystallization.

The *position of the strata* is the next object of consideration. The great elevation of certain strata above the surface of the ocean gives rise to the inquiry whether this change of situation has originated from a depression of the sea, or an actual elevation of the strata themselves.—For many reasons, Dr. H. considers the depression of the sea to be impossible; and he thinks that we may account for the phænomenon much better, by the supposition of a great expanding force, acting from the centre to the circumference, which has been capable of producing all those changes in the position of strata which are now found to exist. The application of such a force is not only proved by the position of strata having been often changed from the horizontal to the vertical, but from the breaks or shifts in the strata themselves, which could scarcely be explained in any other way. If a forcible removal of parts from their original situation be admitted, it is then an object of consideration, by what agent such changes could be effected; and here, says Mr. Playfair,

'We cannot expect to decide with equal evidence, but must be contented to pass from what is certain to what is probable. We may, then, remark, that of the forces in nature to which our experience does in any degree extend, none seems so capable of the effect we would ascribe to it, as the expansive power of heat; a power to which no limits can be set, and one, which on grounds quite independent of the elevation of the strata, has been already concluded to act with great energy in the subterraneous regions. We have, indeed, no other alternative, but either to adopt this explanation, or to ascribe the facts in question to some secret and unknown cause, though we are ignorant of its nature, and have no evidence of its existence.

'We are therefore to suppose, that the power of the same subterraneous heat, which consolidated and mineralized the strata at the bottom of the sea, has since raised them up to the height at which they are now placed, and has given them the various inclinations to the horizon which they are found actually to possess.

'The probability of this hypothesis will be greatly increased, when it is considered, that, besides those now enumerated, there are other indications of movement among the bodies of the mineral kingdom, where effects of heat more characteristic than simple expansion are clearly to be discovered. Thus, on examining the marks of disorder and movement which are found among the strata, it cannot fail to be observed, that notwithstanding the fracture and dislocation, of which they afford so many examples, there are few empty spaces to be met with among them, as far as our observation extends. The breaches and separations are numerous, and distinct; but they are, for the most part, completely filled up with minerals of a kind quite different from the rock on each side of them, and remarkable for containing no vestiges of stratification.'

Having completed the consideration of the phænomena peculiar to stratified bodies, the author goes on to the examination of those which belong to the *unstratified*. His observations on this division of his subject are applied to *Metallic Veins*, *Whinstone*, and *Granite*; all of which, he decidedly concludes with Dr. Hutton, bear unequivocal marks of having been exposed to the action of heat.

'That metallic veins,' says Mr. P., 'are of a formation subsequent to the hardening and consolidation of the strata which they traverse, is too obvious to require any proof; and it is no less clear, from the crystallized and sparry structure of the substances contained in them, that these substances must have concreted from a fluid state. Now, that this fluidity was simple, like that of fusion by heat, and not compound, like that of solution in a menstruum, is inferred from many phenomena. It is inferred from the acknowledged insolubility of the substances that fill the veins, in any one menstruum whatsoever; from the total disappearance of the solvent, if there was any; from the complete filling up of the vein by the substances which that solvent had deposited; from the entire absence of all the appearances of horizontal or gradual deposition; and lastly, from the existence of close cavities, lined with crystals, and admitting no egress to any thing but heat.

'To the same effect may be mentioned those groups of crystals composed of substances the most different, that are united in the same specimen, all intersecting and mutually impressing one another. These admit of being explained, on the supposition that they were originally in fusion, and became solid by the loss of heat; a cause that acted on them all alike, and alike impelled them to crystallize: But the appearances of simultaneous crystallization seem incompatible with the nature of deposition from a solvent, where, with respect to different substances, the effects must take place slowly, and in succession.

'The metals contained in the veins which we are now treating of, appear very commonly in the form of an ore, mineralized by sulphur. Their union with this latter substance can be produced, as we know, by heat, but hardly by the way of solution in a menstruum, and certainly not at all, if that menstruum is nothing else than water. The metals, therefore, when mineralized by sulphur, give no countenance to the hypothesis of aqueous solution; and still less do they give any when they are found native, as it is called, that is, malleable, pure and uncombined with any other substance. The great masses of native iron found in Siberia and South America are well known; and nothing certainly can less resemble the products of a chemical precipitation. Gold, however, the most perfect of the metals, is found native most frequently; the others more rarely, in proportion nearly to the facility of their combination with sulphur. Of all such specimens it may be safely affirmed, that if they have ever been fluid, or even soft, they must have been so by the action of heat; for, to suppose that a metal has been precipitated, pure and uncombined from any menstruum, is to trespass against all analogy, and to maintain a physical impossibility. But it is certain, that many of the native metals have once been in a

state

state of softness, because they bear on them impressions which they could not have received but when they were soft. Thus, gold is often impressed by quartz and other stones, which still adhere to it, or are involved in it. Specimens of quartz, containing gold and silver shooting through them, with the most beautiful and varied ramifications, are every where to be met with in the cabinets of the curious; and contain, in their structure, the clearest proof, that the metal and the quartz have been both soft, and have crystallized together. By the compactness, also, of the body which they form, they show, that when they acquired solidity, it was by the concretion of the whole mass, and not by such partial concretion as takes place when a solvent is separated from substances which it held in solution.'

The same position is also supported by the existence of some other metals in a native state, particularly manganeze (which then possesses the characters to which it has been reduced in furnaces); by the shifting of veins; and by the fragments of surrounding rock being occasionally found immersed in the veins, and encompassed on all sides by crystallized substances.

Whinstone is the next of the unstratified bodies brought forwards in aid of the Huttonian Theory. All these stones, it is observed, discover the rudiments of crystallization; and they bear a very great analogy to lavas, from which they are in general to be distinguished only by containing calcareous spar and zeolite. This analogy extends even to the columnar form which lavas occasionally assume, and which, as well as that of basaltic pillars, differs, in the closeness and regularity of the columns, from any thing which the drying of starch, clay, or other substances of that kind which have been suspended in water, can discover.

Whinstone is also frequently penetrated by pyrites, and sometimes contains pieces of sandstone in the middle of its substance, as if they had once floated in fluid whin. Beds of stone, when in contact with veins of whin, seem to have acquired additional induration: but coal, on the other hand, when similarly circumstanced, is nearly reduced to the condition of coke or charcoal. Whinstone is likewise occasionally seen in tabular masses, between beds of stratified rock, where it is not uncommon to find it elevated, and bent with the concavity upwards, as if it had been influenced, when in a softened state, by a force acting from below. In addition to those circumstances which favour the idea of exposure to fire, the author mentions the state of Agates and Chalcedonies, which are often found in matrices of whin, and which possess a crystallized structure, with the crystals concentric, evidently proceeding from circumference to centre, and leaving a vacuity in the middle. Sir James Hall's experiments are also quoted in this

place, in order to shew that, by slow cooling, fluid whinstone, which would otherwise be vitreous, may be made to assume an opake appearance scarcely to be distinguished from whinstone, or lava.

Granite, the last of the unstratified substances mentioned, 'wherever it is found, is inferior to every other rock; and as it also composes many of the greatest mountains, it has the peculiarity of being elevated the highest into the atmosphere, and sunk the deepest under the surface, of all the mineral substances with which we are acquainted.' It is regarded by Dr. Hutton 'as a stone of more recent formation than the strata incumbent on it; as a substance which has been melted by heat, and which, when forced up from the mineral regions, has elevated the strata at the same time.'—The firm consolidation of this substance, and the crystallization of the parts of which it is composed, are regarded as proofs of its having been once in a state of fluidity; as also the appearance of the quartz in Portsoy granite, which is impressed by the rhomboidal crystals of the feltspar. It is supposed that this circumstance could not have taken place unless the former were once fluid; and that this fluidity could not have been the effect of solution in a menstruum, because in this case each crystal would have assumed its own proper shape, without being able to produce any impression on such as were contiguous to it.

From all the circumstances which have been stated respecting the Huttonian Theory, it is evident that there are two general conclusions which it embraces; the one concerning the actual change to which the different parts of the earth have been subjected, and the other relating to the means by which those changes have been effected. On the first head, the deductions are, 'that the fluidity which preceded the consolidation of mineral substances was simple, that is, it did not arise from the combination of those substances with any solvent;' and 'that, after consolidation, these bodies have been raised up by an expansive force acting from below, and have by this means been brought into their present situation.'—The second, is still admitted to be a matter of theory, or, to speak more properly, of hypothesis; and it consists in the idea that fire, or rather heat, was the cause of the fluidity of those mineral bodies, and of their subsequent elevation. The existence of a prodigious heat in the bowels of the earth, necessary for the fusion of the various substances already mentioned, is considered as being rendered extremely probable by many phænomena which present themselves, more particularly those of volcanoes, hot springs, and earthquakes. The heat, however, of which the existence is thus assumed, is regarded as 'of a nature so far different from ordinary fire, that it may require no circulation

of air, and no supply of combustible materials to support it. It is not accompanied with inflammation or combustion, the great pressure preventing any separation of parts in the substances on which it acts, and the absence of that elastic fluid without which heat seems to have no power to decompose bodies, even the most combustible, contributing to the unalterable nature of all the substances in the mineral regions. There, of consequence, the only effects of heat are fusion and expansion; and that which forms the nucleus of the globe may therefore be a fluid mass, melted, but unchanged by the action of heat.'

The third and last section of this work treats of the phænomena *common to stratified and unstratified bodies;* and here it is attempted to trace some of those series of changes which fossil bodies are destined to undergo. From all his observations on this subject, Dr. Hutton concludes 'that, in the œconomy of the world, we see no marks either of a beginning or an end;' 'that the Author of nature has not given laws to the universe which, like the institutions of men, carry in themselves the elements of their own destruction;' and that, 'though he may put an end, as he gave a beginning, to the present system, at some determinate period, it may be safely concluded that this great catastrophe will not be brought about by any of the laws now existing, and that it is not indicated by any thing which we perceive.'

The decomposition of all mineral substances is considered as continual, and as having been produced by a great number of agents, both chemical and mechanical. As soon as the elevation of strata has been effected, the action of air, moisture, heat, and perhaps light, takes place; which diminishes the force of union in parts, and, as is particularly exemplified in the oxydation of metals, disposes them to resolution into earth. The action of water, either by its slightly solvent powers or by its mechanical effects, more especially on congelation, has a powerful tendency to destroy hard bodies into which it has obtained entrance. Parts which are loosened are carried down by rains, and, in their descent, rub and grind against the superficies of other bodies; thus, as it were, 'turning the forces of the mineral kingdom against themselves.'—The constant series of changes which occur are instanced from various phænomena observed in many parts of the creation, particularly in mountains, rivers, and the sea; and the inference from all of them is, that the present continents are all going to decay, and their materials descending into the ocean, where strata are again to be formed, which will in their turn be consolidated and elevated, and will afterward exhibit a series of changes similar to the past.

We have thus endeavoured to give a general idea of the celebrated Theory of Dr. Hutton, from the interesting account of it furnished by Mr. Playfair in the present publication. The ample notes, which occupy the greater part of the volume, will be found to contain many curious facts, and ingenious illustrations, which could with less propriety have been introduced into the body of the work.

Yell.

ART. VII. *A Comparative View of the Huttonian and Neptunian Systems of Geology:* in Answer to the Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth, by Professor Playfair. 8vo. pp. 256. 5s. Boards. Edinburgh, Ross and Co.; London, Longman and Rees. 1802.

THIS author is a Neptunist, and is decidedly of opinion that the arguments of Dr. Hutton and his illustrator are either fallacious, or may be employed with equal force to establish an opposite conclusion. He admits the general proposition that the strata of the earth are liable to waste, and that the materials are carried forwards to the sea: but he does not with Dr. Hutton consider this 'as making a part of a series of changes, or a step in the succession of worlds; or that on this planet a habitable world has existed prior to the present, and from the waste of which this has originated.'—He does not allow the existence of marine exuviæ in primary strata, whence an argument is obtained to prove this proposition; and he contends that such are only to be seen in the secondary strata, or in what Werner calls rocks of transition, which are supposed to have been created subsequently to the primary, but previously to the secondary rocks. He deems it also impossible to admit this reasoning on another account, viz. because it is found, from historical record, that many mountains, islands, rocks, and harbours, are precisely in the same state at present as they were two or three thousand years ago; which is allowing an extreme slowness of disintegration, and consequently a duration to the world infinitely beyond our conception.

From what is known concerning the laws of calorics, the author cannot comprehend how such a heat, as is assumed, can exist without something to support it; nor can he allow that it can be accumulated or confined, and not obey its characteristic tendency to exist in a state of equilibrium, by passing off to any body which may approach it. The argument in favour of the subterraneous heat, which is deduced from the phænomena of volcanoes, cannot, he thinks, be admitted; because, 1st, This heat is much inferior to that which would melt quartz; 2d, The matter ejected seems to be different from that

of

of unstratified rocks; and, 3d, Their extinction shews that they arise from matter locally accumulated.

The analogical reasoning, with regard to the fusion of carbonate of barytes, is regarded by this writer as inadmissible in its application to lime; and he even suspects that the experiment was made with impure barytes: since, when this substance is obtained by decomposing the nitrate of barytes, according to the process of Vauquelin, it was found to be easily fusible.

In opposition to the supposed effects of heat in the elevation of the strata, he thinks that the same reasoning will partly apply; but in addition to it, he adduces the want of a principle by which its operation can be regulated, and which will prevent it from being the cause of havoc and disorder, by acting at an improper time.

The principles of the Neptunians, he considers as much better adapted to answer the phænomena, and as much more probable in themselves, than those of Dr. Hutton. This theory supposes that the different fossils have been formed, and the strata arranged, by deposition from water.—The objection brought forwards against this system, from the insolubility in water of the matter of which many strata consist, is attempted to be answered by assuming the existence of 'certain modifying circumstances', which, however satisfactory to the author, may probably be deemed gratuitous by the advocates for a different opinion.

In the Neptunian Theory, the numerous variations in the position of strata are supposed to originate from the irregularity of the crystalline deposit: but the author also admits, with the Huttonians, 'that no cause can be assigned for these effects, more probable perhaps than that of an expansion produced from an accumulation of heat in the interior parts of the globe, the power of which has probably been spent in their production.'

The different alternations of strata, in this author's opinion, are likewise much better explained on the supposition of a crystalline deposit alone, than on the idea of the consolidation by fire of matters which have simply subsided in a loose or divided state; and he makes the same conclusions with regard to whinstone, granite, and many other bodies which have been adduced as proofs of the Huttonian theory.—In the latter part of his work, he farther endeavours to demonstrate the truth of the Neptunian and the fallacy of the Huttonian system, by the particular examination of the arguments derived from the appearance of individual fossils.

ART. VIII. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, Vol. V. Part II. 4to. 7s. 6d. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

As this respectable Society pursues the plan lately adopted, of publishing their labours in small portions, we have now to attend to the 2d part of a volume, of which the commencement was announced to our readers in M. R. vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 151.—It opens with a paper on

HISTORY.

Remarks on a mixed Species of Evidence in Matters of History: with an Examination of a new Historical Hypothesis, in the Mémoires pour la Vie de Petrarque, by the Abbé de Sade. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, Esq. F.R.S. Edin. Judge-Advocate of North Britain.—The outline of this Examination was given by the author in a small pamphlet, intitled an *Essay on the Life and Character of Petrarch*, published in 1785, and noticed in M. R. vol. lxxiv. p. 282: but a reconsideration of the subject has enabled Mr. Tytler to exhibit his refutation of the hypothesis of the Abbé de Sade, respecting Petrarch and Laura, in a more ample form, and to place the fallacy of the Abbé's reasoning in the strongest light. The inquiry is prefaced by some remarks on that complex species of evidence, which often presents itself in matters of historical research; and by certain rules, which, as being applicable not only to the case here discussed, but to all investigations of a similar kind, merit general attention:

'I. Where a doubtful fact is to be ascertained, by bringing together, comparing and weighing the sense of various passages of an author's writings, the construction put on *ambiguous* expressions ought to be such as is consonant with the sense of those passages or expressions, which, on the same subject, are *plain* and *unambiguous*.

'II. Where a person's *character* and *manner of thinking, feeling*, or *acting*, are clear, from the general tenor of his life and writings, no interpretation ought to be given to doubtful passages of those writings, which contradicts, or is inconsistent with, such *character, sentiments*, and *conduct*.

'III. Where many passages concur to establish the belief of the disputed fact, a single passage, though apparently contradictory to that supposition, must not be allowed weight, if it is possible to give it an explanation consistent with that opinion which is better supported.

'IV. In such a case, where many passages concur to establish the belief of a certain fact, and there appear one or two passages in apparent contradiction to that belief, there is room to suspect either an *error of transcription or typography*; or, if such supposition is excluded, *interpolation or fabrication*.

'V. In

'V. In the supposition of interpolation or fabrication, there must of necessity be included a cogent and adequate *motive*; and therefore, where such motive is utterly wanting, the supposition is not to be indulged.

'VI. Where this motive is apparent, the presumption of *falsehood* is in proportion to the strength of the motive, the facility of executing the deception, and the weight of the opposing evidence.

'VII. Where a passage is suspected of interpolation or fabrication, it is most material to attend to the sense of the *context*, or what immediately precedes and follows the passage in dispute; as its *consonancy* or *dissonancy* is strong matter of corroboration.'

Having premised these rules of evidence, which afford a just criterion for the decision of all questions of historical controversy, especially where the evidence is mixed and presumptive, Mr. Tytler proceeds to develop the object of the Abbé de Sade in composing his *Mémoires pour la Vie de Petrarque*, to analyze the credibility of the evidence on which he rests his hypothesis, and to try the strength of those arguments by which he endeavours to support it.

The position of the Abbé is that

'Laura was a married woman, the mother of a numerous family; that Petrarch, with all his professions of a pure and honourable flame, had no other end in his unexampled assiduity of pursuit, than what every libertine proposes to himself in the possession of a mistress; and that the lovely Laura, though never actually unfaithful to her husband's bed, was sensible to the passion of her *Cicisbeo*, highly gratified by his pursuit, and, while she suffered on his account much restraint and severity from a jealous husband, continued to give him every mark of regard which, without a direct breach of her matrimonial vow, she could bestow upon him.'

In proof of this hypothesis, which would sully the fame of Petrarch and Laura, the Abbé adduces the note supposed to have been written by Petrarch in the first page of the manuscript copy of Virgil, said to have been the property of Petrarch, and which belonged to the Ambrosian Library at Milan; and the casket, medal, and parchment inscription, found, as pretended, on opening a grave in the church of the Cordeliers at Avignon. On this evidence, it is alleged that Laura was born and died at Avignon, and that she was the mother of a numerous family, having been the same person with Laura de Noves, who was married to Hugh de Sade, from whom the author of the *Mémoires* is lineally descended. There is nothing, however, in the works of Petrarch, which countenances this suggestion; while there are numberless passages which assert unequivocally that she 'was neither born, nor died, nor was buried at Avignon; but that she was born in a small village or country residence in the neighbourhood of Vaucluse, where she

she passed her life in humble retirement; that she died there and was buried in the same place.' By these numerous testimonies deduced from Petrarch's authentic writings, a suspicion of forgery will be affixed on the note in the Ambrosian Virgil, and some trick relative to the contents of Laura's supposed tomb may be apprehended:

'It is impossible (says Mr. T.) to suppose, that numberless passages, interspersed through the works of Petrarch, indicating the place of Laura's birth and death, all naturally connected with the subject treated of, though some furnishing their evidence not in positive terms, but only by inference, should every one of them be fabricated; and that the forger should have been able to insert all these fabricated passages in every one of the manuscripts of the author's works which are to be found in Europe. Nor even, should we allow this strange undertaking to have been practicable, is it possible to figure a motive capable of inducing to the attempt? For, what interest had any man to shew, that the Laura of Petrarch was born and died in an obscure residence in the country, while nothing more was proved to ascertain her origin or connections?'

In taking leave, Mr. T. sums up the evidence on which he maintains that Laura was unmarried, and that Petrarch's passion for her was honourable and unsullied:

'Petrarch has composed 318 sonnets, 49 *canzoni* or songs, and 6 *trionfi;* a large volume of poetry, entirely on the subject of his passion for Laura; not to mention a variety of passages in his prose works, where that favourite topic is occasionally treated, and even discussed at very great length. In the whole of those works, there is not to be found a *single passage*, which intimates that Laura was a married woman. Is it to be conceived that the poet, who has exhausted language itself in saying every thing possible of his mistress; who mentions not only her looks, her dress, her gestures, her conversations, but her companions, her favourite walks and her domestic occupations, would have omitted such capital facts, as her being married, and the mother of many children; married too, as the author of the *Mémoires* asserts, to a man who was jealous of her, and who used her with harshness and unkindness on Petrarch's account?'—

'Would this jealous husband have not only patiently witnessed the mutual expressions of this ardent passion for the space of twenty-one years, that his wife was alive; but have complaisantly permitted her gallant, or a friend under his character, to embalm the memory of his mistress by a rapturous love-elegy, to be inclosed in her coffin; the last insult which the honour of a husband could sustain?'—

'*Lastly*, As the love of Petrarch for Laura was, an honourable and virtuous passion, so the works of the poet afford sufficient evidence, that he ardently desired to be united to Laura in marriage, and was even in the near prospect of that happiness.'

We have thus made several extracts from this examination, but, to those who may interest themselves in the subject, we recommend a perusal of the whole.

Moy.

ANATOMY and CHEMISTRY.

Description of an Extra-uterine Fœtus. *By* Mr. Thomas Blizzard, F.R.S. Edin.—The female, in whom this extra-uterine conception took place, had a miscarriage only five weeks before her decease. On the morning of the day in which she died, after having gone through considerable fatigue in her domestic occupations, she was seized with a violent pain in the lower part of the abdomen, which continued till her death; she gradually became weaker; her abdomen became more and more swollen; and about nine in the evening she expired. On opening the abdomen, a considerable quantity of blood was seen proceeding from the pelvis, which, on examination, was found to issue from a rupture, of the bigness of a small quill, which was apparent in an enlargement that had taken place in the middle of the fallopian tube on the left side. This enlargement was about the size of a pigeon's egg, and, on laying it open, it appeared full of a firm coagulum, within which were two membranes, which seemed to the author to be the chorion and amnion. There was no appearance of fœtus, so short a time having elapsed since the last abortion. The uterus, as in ordinary gestation, was increased in size, and much thickened; its cervix was shut up with a jelly, and its cavity lined with a glutinous effusion, such as might be considered as a *membrana decidua* in its early state of formation. The fallopian tube was nearly of its natural size, except at the place of the enlargement above-mentioned. It was pervious at both extremities. The ovaria were 'much vesiculated,' particularly the left, in which there was a *corpus luteum* of considerable size.

Chemical Analysis of an uncommon Species of Zeolite. *By* Robert Kennedy, M.D. F.R.S. F.A.S., Edinb.—The zeolite, which was subjected to analysis by Dr. Kennedy, was found some time ago in the basaltic rock on which the Castle of Edinburgh is built, inclosed within a mass of prehnite. It resembles 'some of the varieties of tremolite mentioned by Saussure, in the property of giving a phosphoric light by friction. Its specific gravity also is somewhat greater than that of the ordinary kinds of zeolite, as stated by mineralogists. Excepting in these particulars, however, it has the principal characters of a zeolite; for example, in its internal composition, in having been found in a whin rock adhering to prehnite, and in producing a jelly with acids.'

One

One hundred parts of this zeolite were found to contain as follow:

Silex	51.5
Lime	32.
Argil	.5
Oxyd of iron	.5
Soda, about	8.5
Carbonic acid and other volatile matter	5.
	98.

with some traces of magnesia and muriatic acid.

Mathematics, Philosophy, &c.

Meteorological Abstract for the Years 1797, 1798, *and* 1799. Communicated by John Playfair, F.R.S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.—In this abstract, the plan formerly suggested to the Society is enlarged. In the tables, the month is divided into three parts, and the state of the barometer and thermometer is given for each of the divisions. At the end of each table, Mr. Playfair has added some interesting remarks.

A New and Universal Solution of Kepler's Problem. By James Ivory, Esq.—The nature of this problem is well known to mathematicians; and for its solution, many methods have been proposed, chiefly indirect, but which are most commodious for practice, even now, when the improvements in analysis afford a direct solution. Some of the indirect solutions have been founded on no sure grounds; for instance, those of Seth Ward, Boulliald, and Mercator; who assumed, as a condition, the elliptical form of the orbit, but not the equable description of areas: they invented, therefore, an hypothesis, and ascertained its proximity to truth by comparing the results from it with observations.

From the time of the great Newton, solutions on more just principles have been given; and since, from the advanced state of the analytic art, we can obtain a direct solution, we have the means (independently of observations) of ascertaining the accuracy of the indirect solutions. We shall just state the equations that occur in the direct solution.

If r be the line drawn from the focus of the ellipse to the body's place, e the excentricity, and 1 the semi-axis major, then the fluxion of the time $= \mp \frac{rr'}{2} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{e^2-(1-r)^2}}$: which, being

ing integrated, gives, time $= \frac{1}{2}$ arc, (cosine $\frac{r-1}{e}$) $+\frac{e}{2}\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{r-1}{e}\right)^2}$ or, putting θ for the arc, time $= \frac{1}{2}(\theta + e.\ \text{sin.}\ \theta)$ and if m be put for the arc of the mean anomaly, since time $= m \times \frac{1}{2}$, we have $m = \theta + e$ sin. θ: the arc θ is called the arc of the excentric anomaly, and may be deduced in terms of m by a theorem of La Grange (demonstrated by Arbogast, page 252.).

From that theorem, $\theta = m + e$ sin. $m + \frac{e^2}{1.2.2}.\ 2$ sin. $2m + \frac{e^3}{1.2.3.2^2}\left\{3^2 \text{ sin. } 3m - 3 \text{ sin. } m\right\} + \&c.$

Again; if $\varphi - \gamma$ be the true anomaly, tang. $\frac{\theta}{2} = \sqrt{\frac{1+e}{1-e}}$ tang. $\frac{\varphi-\gamma}{2}$

whence, putting $c = \frac{e}{1+\sqrt{1-e^2}}$, there results

$$\varphi - \gamma = \theta + 2c.\ \text{sin.}\ \theta + \frac{2c^2}{2}\text{sin. } 2\theta + \frac{2c^3}{3}\text{ sin. } 3\theta + \&c.$$

and thence, combining it with the preceding theorem,

$$\varphi - \gamma = m + \left\{2e - \frac{e^3}{4} + \frac{5e^5}{9^6}\right\}\text{ sin. } m + \&c.$$

This is the plan of the demonstration given by that great mathematician, La Place.

Mr. Ivory's method is nearly as follows:

In the equation $m = \theta + e$ sin. θ, put $m = 2\mu$, $\theta = 2\tau$, then $2\mu = 2\tau + e$ sin. $2\tau = 2\tau + 2e.$ sin. $\tau.$ cos. τ: whence $\mu - \tau = e.$ sin. $\tau.$ cos. τ: let $e = \frac{e'(\mu-\tau)}{\text{sin.}(\mu-\tau)}$ (1) $\therefore$ sin. $(\mu-\tau) = e'.$ sin. $\tau.$ cos. $\tau.$

Hence, if e' were known, τ might be determined: but e' depends on the value of τ in the equation $e = \frac{e'(\mu-\tau)}{\text{sin. }(\mu-\tau)}$; assume $e = e'$ $\therefore$ τ is known $= \tau'$, suppose: substitute τ' in the equation (1) and deduce the value of e (e') or let $e'' = \frac{e.\ \text{sin.}\ (\mu-\tau')}{\mu-\tau'}$; again substitute this value of e'' in the equation sin. $(\mu-\tau) = e''$ sin. $\tau'.$ cos. τ', and deduce a new value of τ', τ'', suppose; and, similarly proceeding, deduce successive values of e and τ, viz.

e'', e''', &c. τ''', τ'''', &c.

After having shewn how any number of arcs, τ''', τ'''', &c. may be procured, Mr. Ivory proceeds to demonstrate that the arcs

arcs τ, τ', τ'', &c. are alternately greater and less than half the arc of excentric anomaly; and farther, that the terms in the series less than the arc continually increase, while the terms in the series greater than the arc continually decrease: whence, as he observes, 'it is manifest, that by computing more and more terms of the series, we shall have the value of the arc of excentric anomaly within narrower and narrower limits. The arcs τ, τ', &c. form a series of approximations, converging to the true length of half the arc of excentric anomaly, and erring alternately in defect and excess.'

Practical commodiousness, however, requires that the series of arcs τ, τ', &c. should converge rapidly to the value of the arc sought; and Mr. Ivory shews that the series of arcs obtained by his method converges to the true length of half the arc of excentric anomaly with uncommon rapidity.

The several parts of Mr. Ivory's method are explicitly stated in this memoir. By no means unwilling to pay a tribute to the author's ingenuity and mathematical skill, we yet hesitate to pronounce his method superior to all preceding methods, in respect to practical commodiousness. His solution, also, is not the only complete one that has appeared. Will not Mr. Ivory admit that Machin's solution is complete, and independent of the excentricity? In deriving the place of a body moving in an excentric ellipse from the place of a body moving in a parabola, Mr. I. has been anticipated; and for a proof of this assertion, we refer the ingenious author to La Place, *Mecanique céleste*, part 1. book 2. art. 23. and to Simpson's works.

A New Method of expressing the Co-efficients of the Developement of the Algebraic Formula $(a^2+b^2-2\,a\,b\,\cos.\,\varphi)^n$, *by Means of the Perimeters of two Ellipses, when* n *denotes the Half of any odd Number: together with an Appendix, containing the Investigation of a Formula for the Rectification of any Arch of an Ellipse.* *By* Mr. William Wallace, Assistant Teacher of the Mathematics in the Academy of Perth.—In computing the planetary disturbances, it becomes necessary to evolve the form $(a^2+b^2-2\,a\,b\,\cos.\,\varphi)^{\frac{n}{2}}$ into a series; as, $A+B\,\cos.\,\varphi+C\,\cos.\,2\,\varphi+$ &c.: this was first done, we believe, by Euler; and after him, the computation of the co-efficients, A, B, G, &c. exercised the talents of D'Alembert, Clairaut, and La Grange: but the honour of the most elegant solution belongs to a mathematician of these isles, Mr. Ivory, and was given by him in the fourth volume of the Edinburgh Transactions.

In classing the several kinds of differential expressions, those which depend on the form $x^{\cdot\cdot}\,(1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, or on the rectification of a circle, (as the phrase is,) are put first; then succeed

ceed those expressions which can be reduced to the form $x \cdot \frac{(1-e^2x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{(1-x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$, or which depend on the rectification of the ellipse. Since the publication of Le Gendre's paper, (Paris Memoirs, 1786,) the latter problem, the rectification of the ellipse, can in all cases be solved, and commodiously. Hence, although we have not tables exhibiting the lengths of elliptic arcs, yet the *analytical* difficulty is supposed to be at an end, when a problem is reduced to depend on the rectification of an ellipse.

In the problem of the evolution of $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^{\frac{n}{2}}$, it is not necessary to find more than the first two co-efficients A and B; for it has been shewn by Clairaut, D'Alembert, &c. that any co-efficient may be determined, when the two preceding co-efficients are known; and moreover, that, if the co-efficients A and B are known when the index is $\frac{n}{2}$ (n an odd number), the co-efficients A', B', or A, B, may be determined when the index is $\frac{n}{2}\pm 1$. M. La Grange and Mr. Ivory shewed how to find the two first co-efficients in the developement of $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos\varphi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$.

Mr. Wallace takes $n=-3$, and therefore $A=\frac{1}{\pi}\times$ $\int\frac{\varphi\cdot}{(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ and $B=\frac{1}{\pi}\int\frac{2\varphi\cos.\varphi}{(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\varphi)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ (π being the semiperiphery of a circle), and the chief object of Mr. W.'s analysis is to shew that the above mentioned integrals depend on the rectification of the ellipse; a problem which, as he justly observes, may by means of infinite series be resolved in any case that can possibly occur.

Having reduced the integrals, on which A and B in the series $A+B.\cos.\varphi+C.\cos.2\varphi+$ &c. depend, to the rectification of an ellipse, Mr. W. undertakes to shew how the lengths of elliptic arches may commodiously and expeditiously be found; and for this purpose he introduces the formulas, by which the relation subsisting between three ellipses, whose excentricities vary according to a certain law, is exhibited. These formulas were given by Le Gendre in the Paris Memoirs for 1786, and subsequently by La Croix in his treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. There is no simple series from which, in all cases of excentricity, the length of the elliptic arc can be calculated: but, if the ellipse be very nearly circular, then its length may be found by the common series, viz.

$\pi\left\{1-\frac{e^2}{2.2}-\frac{1.1.1.3.e^4}{2.2.4.4}-\text{&c.}\right\}$: or by Euler's, viz. $\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}$

$\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}\left\{1-\frac{1.1}{2.4}c^2-\frac{1.1.3.5}{2.4.6.8}c^4-\frac{1.3}{2.4}-\&c.\right\}$: or by Mr. Ivory's, given in the Edinburgh Transactions, Vol. 4 : but, if the ellipse be much flattened, then the most convenient series is that of Le Gendre, ascending by the powers of the conjugate axis. If, however, the excentricity be neither very great nor very small, then none of the above-mentioned series are commodious for practice, on account of their slow convergency; and other methods must be adopted. The formulas of Le Gendre, by which the length of one ellipse may be determined from the lengths of two others of less or greater excentricity, are very convenient; and for the same end the ingenious author of the present memoir has given what he calls a series, the demonstration of which he adds in an appendix. The construction of the series is as follows:

'I shall now collect into one point of view the result of the preceding analysis, in the form of a practical rule for finding the length of any arch of an ellipse.

'Let $1 =$ the semi-transverse axis, $e =$ the excentricity, $z =$ any arch of the ellipse, reckoned from the extremity of the conjugate axis.

'$\varphi =$ an arch of the circumscribing circle, intercepted between the conjugate axis and an ordinate to the transverse.

'Compute the quantities e', e'', e''', &c. $\sin 2\varphi'$, $\sin 4\varphi''$, $\sin 8\varphi'''$, &c. from these two series of equations,

$$e' = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-e^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e^2}}, \qquad \sin 2\varphi' = \frac{\sin 2\varphi}{(1+e')\sqrt{1-e^2\sin^2\varphi}},$$

$$e'' = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-e'^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e'^2}}, \qquad \sin 4\varphi'' = \frac{\sin 4\varphi'}{(1+e'')\sqrt{1-e'^2\sin^2 2\varphi'}},$$

$$e''' = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-e''^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e''^2}}, \qquad \sin 8\varphi''' = \frac{\sin 8\varphi''}{(1+e''')\sqrt{1-e''^2\sin^2 4\varphi''}},$$

$$e^{IV} = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-e'''^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-e'''^2}}, \qquad \sin 16\varphi^{IV} = \frac{\sin 16\varphi'''}{(+e^{IV})\sqrt{1-e'''^2\sin^2 8\varphi'''}},$$

&c. &c.

'The quantities e', e'', e''', &c. approach very fast to 0, and the arches φ', φ'', φ''', &c. approach to a certain limit, which let us denote by θ.

'Compute also these three quantities,

$$P = (1+e')(1+e'')(1+e''') \&c.$$

$$Q = \frac{e}{2} + \frac{ee'}{2.2} + \frac{ee'e''}{2.2.2.} + \frac{ee'e''e'''}{2.2.2.2}, + \&c.$$

$$R = \frac{e(1+e')}{2.2}\sin 2\varphi' + \frac{ee'(1+e')(1+e'')}{2.2.2.2}\sin 4\varphi'' + \frac{ee'e''(1+e')(1+e'')(1+e''')}{2.2.2.2.2.4}\sin 8\varphi''' + \&c.$$

'The

'The elliptic arch $z = \theta P(1 - eQ) + eR$.

'When φ becomes a quadrant, the sines of $2\varphi'$, $4\varphi''$, $8\varphi'''$, &c. are evidently each 0, so that, putting $\pi = 3.14159$, &c. we have in this case, $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$, and putting E to denote the whole elliptic quadrant, we have

$$E = \frac{\pi}{2} P(1 - eQ).$$

'Now it is worthy of remark, that the expression $P(1 - eQ)$ is common to the indefinite arch z and the whole quadrant E; hence it follows that the indefinite arch may be also expressed thus,

$$z = \frac{2\theta}{\pi} E + eR.'$$

This paper well deserves the attention of mathematicians, since Mr. W. has drawn it up with perspicuity, and conducted the analytical operations with great neatness and expedition. His merit, however, chiefly consists in having improved on the labours of others; for we do not regard him as original either in the memoir, in which he makes *A* and *B* depend on the rectification of the ellipse, or in the appendix, in which he gives a method for finding the length of the ellipse under any circumstances of excentricity. D'Alembert has expressly shewn that the co-efficients *A* and *B* depend on the rectification of the conic sections, and the same may be immediately collected from Le Gendre's memoir. In the series for the length of the ellipse, we consider Mr. Wallace as indebted for the principle of his method (to go no farther in quest of originality) to Mr. Ivory, who laid it down in that valuable essay to which we have more than once alluded. We cannot, however, dismiss the subject without again expressing our approbation of that perspicuity, and that analytical dexterity, which every part of Mr. Wallace's paper exhibits; and we hope that he will continue his researches, and by his contributions add worth and dignity to the volumes of the Edinburgh Transactions.

R.W.

Description of some Improvements in the Arms and Accoutrements of Light Cavalry, proposed by the Earl of Ancram, Colonel of the Mid-Lothian Regiment of Fencible Cavalry, and F.R.S. Edinb., to his Excellency Marquis Cornwallis, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, &c.—The chief improvement here suggested relates to the Carabine, which is made to prime itself, and is lighter and shorter than the common one, yet carries a ball to an equal distance. Some other remarks are added: but how the memoir found its way into the Transactions of a learned and scientific body, we are at a loss to determine.

R.W.

See pp. 299 & 300.

ART. IX. *Sketches on the Intrinsic Strength, Military and Naval Force of France and Russia;* with Remarks on their present Connexion, Political Influence, and future Projects. In two Parts. Part I. 4to. pp. 200. Hague. 1803. Imported by Harding, London.

THE singular production before us, though written in our own language, evidently comes, as it professes to do, from the other side of the water; and if the author of it be no great proficient in the art of composition, he possesses, or affects to possess, a very unusual share of information with regard to the interests and views of the several powers of Europe, their military establishments, their resources, and their relative situations. While we are surprised at the unusual store of facts which he communicates, we are equally struck by the bold, forcible, and original remarks with which he accompanies them; and, as many of each are particularly applicable to the present crisis, we shall submit them rather at large to our readers: though we shall not be able to give place to half the passages which we should wish to insert. The author, it must be admitted, is a harsh and ungracious counsellor, strongly painting our past misconduct, bluntly stating our recent errors, and directly attacking our most favourite prejudices. Instead of flattering our self-love, he humbles our pride, and mortifies our vanity. He employs invective to admonish us, and reproaches to reclaim us; while the earnestness and zeal which he displays in the cause of his country shew that his aim is laudable, and that his motives are pure. If his manner should repulse and his freedom offend the many, yet the wise and the dispassionate few will open their ears to his counsels, being convinced that they are disinterested and able.

We must apprize our readers that the work appears to have been finished a short time before the delivery of the King's message to the Parliament, announcing the hostile preparations in the ports of France; and that consequently some of its parts have lost their reference to the moment. We must also protest against being understood as giving our sanction to all the facts and remarks which are contained in this volume,—facts which we have had no opportunity of verifying, and remarks of which we are not politicians enough to judge.

In the opinion of this author;

"As matters now stand, the political powers and military force of continental Europe, are to be considered, as concentered in the governments of France and Russia. These two states have, each in its sphere, fought themselves over the frontiers of resistance; in understanding with one another, no power, or combination of powers can

can check, or interrupt the operations of either of them. South of the Danube and the Elbe, Europe is directly and indirectly subject to France; and the coasts of Barbary and Morocco will forthwith be colonized under her authority. North of the Elbe and Danube to the Frozen ocean, is under the dominion, and immediate control of Russia; Asiatic Turky and Persia may also soon fall under her yoke. If Austria and Prussia assume a sort of independency of one another, that very assumption secures the dependency of both, upon the Czar and the Consul: no doubt it will therefore be allowed, and encouraged, until both these governments can be dispensed with. How long the chiefs of those two mighty empires may agree, and continue to pursue their present system, cannot, perhaps at this moment, be determined; we shall therefore, in as far as relates to their neighbourhood, political ties and commercial intercourse with Great Britain, consider both France and Russia in their present state, and as they now stand relatively to the British Empire.'

Many important and instructive observations are made on the prospects of France in regard to manufactures, maritime trade, and fisheries, in case the late peace had continued; and the means of commanding the European market, which the political pre-eminence of Bonaparte would have conferred on him, are described in detail in so truly alarming a manner, that they in some degree diminish our regret at the re-commencement of hostilities.

A specimen of the bold original cast of the writer's politics is contained in the extract here subjoined:

'With respect to America, it is not easy to foresee how the United States and the French Republic may finally arrange their commercial intercourse with one another.

'Of the numerous faults and blunders committed by the several parties concerned in the late revolutionary war, next to *Great Britain*, the government of America has made the most irretrievable: to enter into war, for the mere purpose of acting upon the defensive, is the most ridiculous of all political absurdities. Such parties generally receive more blows than they give; and in the end, they are spurned at by their friends and despised by their enemies.

'As the United States are situate, possessing an immense length of coast, a great number of mercantile ports, and the several provinces producing but little variation in their exportable commodities, to enable their rapidly increasing population to maintain a profitable intercourse with the rest of the world, a certain portion of the sugar-trade is indispensably necessary. A small settlement, or two, would be of little importance to America; nor can it be expected that this government will be satisfied with such. But how are they now to acquire any great possession?

'During her warfare with France, or, at any time prior to the destruction of *Toussaint*, America might have easily secured St. Domingo; a single proclamation, declaring that island an integral part of the federal republic, and an independent state in the union, would have instanta-

neously rallied, both *blacks* and *whites* around her standard. And what had the United States to apprehend from France? *Caresses* and *attention:* but certainly no sort of danger.

'The acquisition of St. Domingo, would have been, both in a commercial and political consideration, every thing that America could rationally desire: it would have enabled the United States to carry on a wide, extensive, and profitable maritime trade; and, as it would have rendered the political and mercantile interests of America and Great Britain reciprocal and mutual, by securing the British possessions in the West Indies, it would have raised an insuperable barrier between the United States and their perfidious sister the French Republic *.

'The opportunity is now lost! The partial patriotism of her chief magistrate, has, to all appearance, deprived America, perhaps for ever, of becoming that conspicuous nation which nature and the spirit of her inhabitants, certainly designed her to be, in a few years. The politics of the acting president, seem to be guided by no other system, than the personal animosities of Mr. Jefferson: he seems to bear malice against the British government; and that hatred is, with him, a sufficient reason to make America the unconditional dupe of the French republic.

'St. Domingo lost, the Americans have turned their views towards the island of Cuba; they consider the acquisition of that settlement as the certain result of a quarrel with Spain, and they pretend to have already a plausible pretext to make a claim upon that forlorn monarchy. But will France, now *military* mistress of the gulph of Mexico, suffer to settle under the lee of St. Domingo, a power, which might thereby become her rival in the colony trade? Certainly not; the very idea is repugnant to common sense. The Consulate may, perhaps, permit, and even encourage America to quarrel with Spain, with Portugal, or with Great Britain; but the republic will reserve

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'* That St. Domingo, being a state of America, would have secured the possessions of Great Britain in the West Indies, admits, we think, of no sort of doubt. To maintain that settlement, and the tranquillity of its own coasts and maritime commerce, it would have become, with the government of America, a necessary policy to encourage, and *support if required,* the permanency of the maritime preponderance of the British empire. The United States could then never have any thing to apprehend from a naval power; nor from armies to be carried across the Atlantic Ocean direct. Nor could the West-India colonies of Great Britain be, in any wise, endangered by the vicinity of the Americans. That government, in possession of St. Domingo, could by no rule of prudence, nor maxim in politics, aim at the acquisition of more islands; the produce of that settlement would be abundant for the interior consumption of the United States, and for all useful purposes in their foreign trade; to attempt further aggrandisement by conquest, or to monopolize the sugar-trade, could not fail to combine Great Britain and France against them; a circumstance that, were they in possession of all the sugar-islands, they could not be prepared against for centuries to come.'

to herself, the objects of their differences as a pledge of their future tranquillity.

'Although the rulers of France know enough of the principles of sound policy, not to build the permanency of their government, upon the caprice, or partiality of temporary ministers; yet we see their leading system is to manage the official and public men in other countries, so as to render their influence, ignorance, and credulity subservient to the consolidation of the Consular republic. The *Versaillian* policy of the Consulate, being well seconded by a revolutionary audacity, and supported with energetic firmness, has contributed more than all the Jacobine armies of France, to subdue the corrupt and cowardly governments of other states. The Consuls have been remarkably fortunate in finding manageable men abroad, it is true, and it must be confessed they have known to make use of them; for should the governments of Europe and America hereafter see their errors, the Consulate has taken special care that they shall not have the means to retrieve them.'

The author shews that France is able to bring into the field, for the purposes of offensive war, as large a force as the rest of the European continent united, with the exception of Russia. France, he says, contains six millions of men capable of bearing arms, two of which are between the ages of eighteen and twenty-three.

The relative situations and respective interests of France and Russia are here ably depicted:

'The political powers and military force of continental Europe, are divided between the governments of France and Russia. These two mighty empires, are come in contact: Berlin, Vienna, and Constantinople, can only be considered as three neutral posts, situate in their line of demarkation. By the reduction of other states, the politics of Europe are much simplified; but that very circumstance renders the respective positions of the two dictatorial powers more critical. The intermediate field of their usual machinations is cleared, the slightest motion of the one, must now directly affect the other.

'A free, independent, and secure communication between the southern provinces of Russia and the Mediterranean, was an essential article in the fundamental system of Czar Peter; it has been pursued, with more, or less energy by all his successors; and, it is of such importance to the Russian empire that it can never be abandoned.

'The navigation of the Black sea, was a standing project in the politics of the French monarchy; it is now obtained, and to preserve it, is a consideration of the utmost consequence to the republic. The Turkish government, sunk as it is, into a lethargic effeminacy, an open passage through the Archipelago and the Dardanelles, gives to France, not only the direction of the trade of that empire, but what, to the Consulate, is an object of infinitely greater importance, it lays open the only vulnerable part of the frontiers of Russia.

'In the present state of things, can Russia and republican France go mutual sharers in the trade and government of the Turkish empire?

This is by no means likely; nay, we may venture to say, it is impossible. Which of the parties then is to give up its pretension? The cabinet of Petersburgh must certainly know, that should the consulate be allowed to assume an ascendancy at Constantinople, or, to intermeddle in the affairs of Turky, the fate of Moscow may again be disputed at Pultava! Will the present government of France retract and leave the Seraglio and St. Sophia to the desecration of Russians? In that case, a Cossack and Highland army, seconded by a Russian and British fleet, might yet confine the empire of Bonaparte to the government of his Gauls of the West. Or, can the ambition of Russia and the avarice of France be satisfied with a partial partition of Turky? It is a known fact, that the consul did propose to the court of Petersburgh, to leave Moldavia, Walachia, Bessarabia, Bosnia, and Servia, to the disposal of Russia and Austria, on condition that France might possess Candia, Negropont, and other Greek islands in the Archipelago. But Russia would as soon see France in possession of the canal of Constansinople and the Crimea, as suffer her to fix her feet on posts that might soon command the communication between the Black and Mediterranean seas. To propose an entire partition of the European dominions of the Turks, to whom give Thrace and Constantinople? Besides, Russia will never agree to a division that shall leave the Grecian islands to France; nor can it be expected that the Consulate will leave the Bosphorus to Russia.

'Thus, between these two governments matters seem to be come nearly to a crisis. Considering the characters of each resepectively, and the powers and attitude of the two empires, if the Consul possess only the half of those transcendent talents which his panegyrists are willing to allow him, he must certainly see, that their present cordiality cannot be of long duration*. And he is no doubt likewise aware, that

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'* It is truly pitiful to see public ministers and men charged with the defence of nations, cajoling themselves in the hope, that Russia and France will quarrel and fight! Quarrel they certainly will, but when that event takes place, woe to their neighbours! While at peace, their mutual preponderance requires only dependency and obedience: at war, their hostilities will impose upon the eastern continent, submission and slavery.

'When the Czar and the Consul draw forth their legions in hostile array, mediation, armed coalitions, neutral conventions, and *demarcation-lines*, will be of little avail. Those powers have long been unused to cabinet warfare, and to courtier *étiquette* in the field. The intervention of other states may hasten their own subjection, but cannot ward off their fate. The chieftains of Russia and France will meet nearly on the centre of the world; the object of their quarrel will not be a bishoprick, a sugar-island, nor, who shall read their mass in Latin, or say their prayers in Greek: they will fight for the possession of the *Hellespont* and *Bosphorus*, two posts on which hangs *now* suspended, the empire of our eastern hemisphere. Such contending parties will not come out to skirmish and then mutually retire; nor will they fight for conquests to give away; the one will keep the field,—and with it, the dictatorship of the world.'

while

while Great Britain can powerfully interfere, to risk a quarrel with Russia would be imprudent and dangerous.

'In this situation it appears to us, and indeed daily occurrences seem to confirm our opinion, that the plan of the Chief Consul is, to manage the court of Petersburgh until he disengage his rear; that is, until he shall tie down the British government to passive inactivity.'

Respecting the Chief Consul, the author observes:

'Bonaparte has great advantages over his cotemporaries. He was brought up in the world, and in active life. Beginning his career as a subaltern, his profession obliged him to think; and the habit of thinking no doubt taught him to calculate. The revolution enabled him to see men of all descriptions exposed without disguise; and now Consul, he easily sees through the masks of those who have the vanity or folly to attempt to deceive him. This adventurer is in possession of absolute power, has the means to make that power irresistible, and has experience at an early period of life. He is the patron and protector of all sorts of principles, professions, and prejudices; and is himself bound by none.

'Amongst the absurdities of the times, it is not one of the least, to hear the legislators of Great Britain propping up the power of the British empire by the discontent and broils which they foresee generating in France, and with the jealousy which the politics of the republic is said to be raising amongst other continental governments. The obstinacy of infatuation is astonishing! Should the people of France be angry with the man who snatched their country from the precipice of inevitable ruin, and who raised *them* to the dictatorship of the world? And will they oppose his endeavours to consolidate their situation? But they are oppressed, says John Bull! If we ask with what?—the whole of John's *corps diplomatique* cannot tell. In politics and in public society, oppression is relative. To attempt to scare Bonaparte with the jealousy of other powers, is, perhaps, still more ridiculous! Those who have any power, are his associates in despoiling those who have none. What benefit could the change of the name of a chief produce to Great Britain, or to Europe? Would a General Moreau or a Masena be less a Frenchman than Bonaparte? No;—but we say they may be less *habile!* When the ability of enemies becomes a consideration with Britons, then alas! our legislators may go home and plant potatoes.'

The reader, who well considers the observations made in the passage which we shall now insert, will be assisted in forming a conception of the gigantic difficulties of the present times:

'It must be evident to the world, that the present rulers of the republic, from whatever point of view they are taken, can only be considered as rebel chiefs. They were born subjects of their king, most of them held offices in his service, and at mature age, swore allegiance to his government; he is alive, and at this time is morally, as well entitled to sit on the throne of France, as any hereditary monarch can be to sit on the throne of his ancestors. These usurpers know,

that, however pliable and passive the politics of other governments may have now and then appeared, it cannot be presumed that legitimate sovereigns should prostitute the dignity of their stations, and expose the safety of their persons and families in so palpable a manner as voluntarily to sanction the rebellion, robberies, pillage, and plunder of the republic; and associate in treaties of friendship and mutual support, with the irreconcileable enemies of all legal government. The Chief Consul knows, that the treaties, which he has imposed upon other states, are extorted bonds, and will never bind the conscience. He is well aware, that when his authority in France has occasion for help from abroad, his part of the drama will be nearly out. Nor can he suppose that his neighbours are less sensible, that the support of France implies her dominion. In short, rebels know that rebellion can only be legalized by ultimate success: and that while any legal government possesses the means of opposition and resistance, the success of the French republic cannot be considered as secure. The Consul may profess peace and friendship with all states; and he may offer alliances to the great, and protection to the weak; but every legitimate sovereign should know, that when the missionaries of Bonaparte approach his throne, they come either to spoil, crush, or undermine it. The destruction, or subjugation of all independent nations, especially of all rival powers, is with the rulers of France, a principle of self-preservation, and is, therefore interwoven with the very existence of their military community.'

Having gone through his sketch of the power and politics of France, the writer next states his views of those of Russia. In giving an account of the recent growth of the Russian power, he intrepidly remarks:

'Had Charles XII., after the battle of Narva, secured his posts on the Neva, Sweden might yet have been what Gustavus Adolphus left her. The acquisition of Noteburg, now Schlusselburg, Nyeskantz now Petersburgh, and of the Islands of Retusari now Cronstadt, posts of no consideration to the Swedish hero, secured to Russia the dominion of the north of Europe; and has enabled that government to extend a dictatorial influence over all Europe and Asia. By the more recent acquisitions of the Crimea, Oczakow and Georgia;—Constantinople, Ispahan and Delhi are now as much in the power of Russia, as Stockholm, Warsaw, and Copenhagen, have long been. Had the peace-makers at Utrecht, secured an independent monarchy in Spain, and given to the United Provinces a territorial basis, such as sound policy, justice, and even common sense pointed out, Europe might yet have been composed of independent states. Had Great Britain at the peace of 1763, maintained her conquests, she would not have had to sign away the half of her empire in 1783. Nor would it have been necessary to purchase the respite of Amiens with the safety of the other half.'

The author ridicules the conduct of our diplomacy in the North of Europe, and censures the whole of our policy. The question respecting contraband, he regards as of no moment; and he

he maintains that, instead of insisting on it, we should have secured the friendship of Russia at any price, and have done all in our power to render flourishing and independent the kingdoms of Sweden and Denmark.

'It was (we are told) a speculation of the great king of Prussia, to have settled the crown of Poland, hereditary in the family of the Prince of Orange, and to have transferred the Stadtholdership to the House of Brandenburgh. We recollect that this project was mentioned in an indirect manner in London about 20 years ago; but to propose Prussia as a maritime power, was then considered as little less than high treason. This shews that old England is in some things consistent in her politics; that Spaniards and Italians might not become sailors, we guaranteed the Spanish empire to the French monarchy; and nearly a hundred years afterwards, that Dutch sailors should not become Prussians, we have preferred that the Batavian republic belong to the French consulate! France, Italy, Spain, and Holland make now but one state; whereas had Spain and Holland been enabled (as they but very lately might) to maintain their independency, we would have had still three maritime powers to cope with. By a similar train of good luck, assisted by our steady system of policy, we shall also see incorporated, the powers of Denmark and Sweden, with those of the Russian empire, and all the three will then make only one power.'

Stating what he supposes to be the reasons which determined Denmark and Sweden, when they declined to separate from Russia in order to make a common cause with us, he says that they recollected

'Our policy towards the republic of the United Provinces and the House of Orange from our campaign with Van Tromp in 1652 to that with admiral Story in the *Zuyder-zee* in 1799.. Our desertion of the declining cause of the House of Austria at Utrecht and on several other occasions, and our suspicious conduct towards the king of Prussia in 1762, were scrupulously analyzed; and upon impartial examination, the result was found, not to be of such a nature as could inspire the sovereigns of Denmark and Sweden with any confidence in our protection. Besides these, the king of Sweden had fresh in his mind the promises we made of fleets and armies, to his father in 1788, 1789, and 1790. Nor had the Prince Royal of Denmark forgotten the blustering menaces of the British ministers at Copenhagen and Petersburgh upon that occasion. Both princes knew, that we had pledged the faith of the nation to Turky, to Prussia and to Poland; and they recollected our shameful compromise with the empress Catherine in 1791 whereby those powers were for some paltry mercantile consideration, abandoned to the mercy of Russia.

'How far our late negociations, and the result of them are calculated to inspire the continental governments with a confidence in our future friendship, will be noticed in a second part of these sketches.'

These are accusations which the advocates of the infallibility of the British Cabinet will find it difficult to repel:

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'Since the House of Bourbon ascended the throne of Spain, the separation of the colony of St. Domingo from France, was, in as far as relates to Great Britain the most important event that has occurred in the politics of the world. It should have been considered by the British government, as brought about by the guardian angel of the empire, to affirm our national existence and perpetuate our maritime grandeur!

'Of every twenty years that have elapsed since the peace of Utrecht, we have had to fight ten with monarchical France, in defence of our foreign possessions and maritime trade. In that period all that we have acquired is Canada in farm, and have lost in property that immense empire which now makes the United States of America; we have incurred a debt that absorbs twenty millions sterling annually, of the industry of the public; we have lost the naval support of Holland, the markets of Europe for our manufactures, and all political connection with the continent. In the mean time, France has become a military state, has doubled her national powers, tripled her military force, disembarrassed herself from debt, roused the moral energy of the public by her conquests, extended her political influence from Washington to Moscow, and her military command from Bergen in Norway to Madagascar. In this relative situation we had the most indisputable of all rights, that of self-preservation, to have used every means in our power to prevent the French republic ever again acquiring possessions abroad. The revolution of France in itself was a matter of indifference, to Great Britain as a state; her Jacobinism was a bug-bear wherewith to frighten fools; or had she conquered continental Europe, what was that to us? It was our business to care, that neither France nor any power under her influence and authority should either conquer or retain a single port, post, nor settlement out of Europe; and above all things, Great Britain should have spent her last shilling to maintain a separation between France, republic, or monarchy, and St. Domingo. Rather than suffer that island to fall under the dominion of the Consulate, it would be good policy on our part, to give to any power, Russia, or America, no matter which, that would protect it, either independent or as a colony, the island of Jamaica as a *douceur*.'

He charges us with not having turned to proper account the unexpected happy termination of the northern contest. Bonaparte, he says, concluded that we should have followed it up by an alliance injurious to his views and interests; and we are told that, under an apprehension of something of the sort taking place, 'all the talents and invention of the cabinet of Malmaison were occupied; and what, we must allow did more credit to the capacity of Bonaparte's ministers, than to the diplomatic sagacity of some other parties, before it was either known at the courts of Berlin, Vienna, or London, that any intercourse between France, Russia and Turky was opened, the conventions now subsisting between the emperor Alexander and the Consul, and between the latter and the Grand Signior, were

were signed and ratified. It was then that Bonaparte resolved upon the entire subjugation of Italy, the partition of Germany, the acquisition of the kingdom of Fez, and the dominion of Brasil.'

If the author's information be correct, so far from indulging any hope that Russia will be friendly to us in the present contest, we ought rather to expect active hostility on her part.

Retaining to the last his severe and bold strain, the writer thus concludes:

'In as far as these sketches relate to France and Russia, we shall now only observe, that as these two great continental monarchies were seen to improve their national consistence at home, and to extend their political influence abroad, it should have been the most invariable system of Great Britain, as it was the sacred duty of her government to have directed all the power and influence of the British nation, towards the support and augmentation of the lesser states of Europe, whose situation was such, as could warrant the possibility of their being rendered permanent. These were, prior to the peace of Utrecht, *Holland*, *Spain*, and *Austria*; and, until the capitulation of Nystad in 1721, *Denmark* and *Sweden* came under the same description. To raise and keep up the maritime states, to extend their dominions at home and their possessions abroad, should have been our peculiar care; their interests were our own, and upon our prosperity depended their existence. This sort of policy was however too wide, and its principle too liberal for our contracted views; the spirit of commerce seldom looks beyond the prospect of immediate gain; instead of guiding, as the legislature should have done, the national spirit of commercial enterprise, towards the consolidation of the British empire and the independence of Europe, the British government itself has long been influenced by the narrow projects of mercantile speculation: thus we have lost our natural maritime allies without having gained a *nutmeg* by their fall. On the contrary, instead of having encreased the sources of our commerce, wealth, and power, we have greatly declined; the powers of the British empire, compared to those of France alone, bear a far less proportion now, than they did a hundred years ago; when compared to those of France and Russia united, our inferiority appears still more alarming.

'However, although the secondary powers of Europe, and amongst them our maritime allies, are subjugated, or rendered dependent upon France and Russia, the world must not be given up for lost. The Russian nation cannot yet have forgotten what it owes to the glorious memory of its great founder and to that of Catherine II. Nor can the court of Petersburgh compromise the dignity of a sovereign and so far divest royalty of honour, honesty, and of all the attributes of a legitimate government, as to countenance the crimes of the rulers of France. Besides, Great Britain herself, now brought to the alternative, *tamely to submit to the domineering spirit of France*, or, *to unshackle the natural vigour of the nation by adopting a liberal system of politics*, may yet confine the dominion of those rapacious republicans within such frontiers as may secure the peace of the world. In extraordinary cases, to use extraordinary means is not only lawful, but

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it is a duty. In the present political state of the civilized world, France is in Europe already too powerful; it is therefore the duty of all other powers, and of Great Britain in particular, to prevent the republic augmenting its force by the acquisition of foreign settlements. If the courts of Lisbon and Madrid cannot be roused up to a sense of the duty they owe to the great commonwealth of polished nations, their possessions must be taken from under the leaden hands of their torpid governments and made subservient, as nature designed them, to the happiness of mankind and to the independence of Europe; likewise, those luxuriant countries that may be said to groan under the chilling authority of that monstrous government of Turky and the Barbary states, should forthwith be appropriated to the same beneficial purpose.

'Instead of that common place phrase *balance of power* which never existed but on sheep-skin treaties, Great Britain has yet the means to raise, in Europe, in America, and on the ocean, such powers as would establish a real balance or barrier, which all the force and frantic rage of disappointed jacobinism could never break down. Then we would have no need to proclaim ourselves the saviours of Europe! A grateful world would do it for us.

'It should however not be forgotten, that we have only *one* alternative now remaining; to wit, to consign our children and the nation to a state, of all others the most repugnant to the feelings of men and the most degrading to human nature,—that of a *subordination to the French:* or, to break through those contemptible formalities which bind the hands of government and render all the glorious efforts of our irresistible powers of no effect.

'Are the king of Spain and the prince of Brasil, *as Vassals to Bonaparte*, more related to us, than were the king of Sardinia and the prince of Orange who both fought our battles? And is the correspondence of the Grand Signor, of the emperor of Morocco and the dey of Algiers with the first consul less hostile to our interests than that of the nabob of Arcot was with Tippoo Sultan? What are Spain, Portugal, Turky, and Morocco to us, when compared to the safety of the British empire? or what are all our miserable calculations on financial economy compared with British liberty?

'Rather than risk the possibility of ever being obliged to acknowledge a superior on earth, our last shilling, the movable property of the empire the *national debt*, and if necessary the blood of our *darling* children, must be to Britons no consideration.'

The second part of these sketches, it is said, will contain a general view of the politics and diplomatic history of Great Britain, from the peace of Utrecht to the present year. If we are to form any judgment from the summary of its contents here given, we may conjecture that it will constitute a very curious and interesting work.

If the positions of this able writer be well founded, it follows that, for a century and a half, our national policy has been ill-judged, contracted, and at variance with our own interests and those of Europe. We fear that, in his remarks on this subject,

subject, he too often has reason on his side; and we are of opinion that, if matters of this nature were discussed by persons possessing competent information, great good might result. From the collision of jarring sentiments, a more correct public opinion would form itself; and hints highly useful to statesmen would be suggested. The importance of advantages of this nature cannot well be estimated. Does not the crisis, in which Great Britain at this moment finds herself, verify the observation? for, if the wisdom and energy of her councils equalled the spirit of patriotism and devotion which animate her people, she might safely set the whole world at defiance; while she would exhibit a spectacle more sublime and awful than is to be discovered in the annals of time.

The novel points, and the best laboured in this work, which seem the most to require farther investigation and to invite fresh discussion, as well as most to merit the attention of our readers, are, among others, that of our acting in general on too confined and short-sighted a policy; that of not anticipating the views of France, and of not counteracting them by alliances founded on large and liberal principles; the importance of colonies; the error of giving up our acquisitions at the end of each war; and that of restoring those made in the revolutionary war to France and her allies at the peace of Amiens.

We enter our *caveat* most decidedly against all the author's remarks in derogation of the Polish and Swiss struggles; and we wholly dissent from his observations on the corn-laws. Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For NOVEMBER, 1803.

GEOGRAPHY.

Art. 10. *The Circular Atlas*, and Compendious System of Geography; being a comprehensive and particular Delineation of the known World; whether relative to the Situation, Extent, and Boundaries of Empires, Kingdoms, Republics, &c. or to the Description of Countries, Islands, Cities, Towns, Harbours, Rivers, Mountains, &c. Comprising whatever is curious in Nature or Art. The Materials, derived from original Productions, and from Works of the first Authority, are arranged upon a Plan of Perspicuity and Conciseness, methodised so as to be accessible to every Capacity, and illustrated by circular Maps, from accurate Drawings, made expressly for this Work. By John Cooke, Engraver. Part I. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hurst, &c.

We have read the introduction contained in this publication, and see no reason for complaining of errors and inaccuracies, but of the inflation

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and turgidity of style in which the author delivers his precepts of philosophy. His learning and information are sufficiently abundant, but the English ladies would be better pleased, and better instructed indeed, if they were presented to them with greater simplicity. Some parts are almost ludicrous: 'the billiard-table and bowling-green,' says the author, 'may *innocently* represent the laws of motion.'

Again,

'Curiosity, it has been the general remark of mankind, is predominant in the female part of society; it has been observed, with equal truth, and greater candour, that this desire of novelty is implanted in the human breast for great and good purposes: uncommon pleasure is annexed to the first appearance of truth in the mind; the pleasure is exquisite, but transient; to repeat the delight, the understanding is prompted with a restless thirst of knowledge.' R.W.

Art. 11. *The Universal Atlas,* and Introduction to Modern Geography: In which are described, the most celebrated Empires, States, and Kingdoms of the World. With a general View of Astronomy; the Solar System; the Fixed Stars and Constellations; Definition of Geography; Figure and Motion of the Earth; Vicissitudes of the Seasons, &c.; a Description of the Terrestrial and Celestial Globes; with Geographical Problems; Eastern and Western Hemispheres, &c. Also, the Method of adverting to the Time of Day in distant Nations is clearly elucidated on a new Geographical Clock. The Whole illustrated with Thirty-one Maps and Plates, accurately delineated by an eminent Geographer. Engraved by John Cooke. The Introduction, and Geographical Descriptions, by the Rev. Thomas Smith. 4to. half-bound. Harris.

This is one of those books which contain *multum in parvo;* and an useful book, considering the quantum of information which it contains, it might have been, if the author would have descended from his high and lofty style, and have communicated his knowlege in plainer and more unadorned language. We give an instance from the beginning of the article Europe:

'In a geographical description of the habitable world, as divided into quarters, Europe claims the most distinguished position: not, indeed, on account of its extent, for it is the smallest of the four, but as a theatre on which the arts and sciences have long displayed their fascinating charms, and a subject affording infinite variety of character, government and manners:

'Blest with a temperate climate, and a richly diversified surface, it presents to our contemplation an assemblage of natural charms, comprising the rural, sublime, soft, and romantic, while the numerous mountains, seas, and rivers, which divide its several countries, are extremely advantageous to its inhabitants; as tending either to check the progress of despotism, to facilitate commerce between distant nations, or to excite human industry.

'Here the mind of man, ever inquisitive, ever anxious for a greater plenitude of knowledge, has been frequently refreshed with copious

draughts

draughts from the pure springs of literature; a laudable thirst of discovery has been attended with the most felicitous success; the refulgence of Divine truth has (in many parts) dispersed the dark clouds of superstition; and innumerable transactions of importance have furnished an exhaustless treasure of instruction and entertainment.'

So also in the beginning of the account of Asia:

'The subject of this map is particularly entitled to the admiration of a contemplative reader; not merely on account of its extensive territories, salubrious air, luxuriant soil, delicious fruits, and those innumerable productions which sparkle in the mines, diversify the surface of the mountains, embroider the verdant plains, or impregnate the passing breeze with accumulated odours; but as the immediate scene of man's creation, and a country which the adorable Messiah vouchsafed to honour with his birth, residence, and expiatory sufferings: for here, according to the sacred records, the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, and formed our first parents out of the dust of the ground; here, subsequent to the destroying deluge, he accepted the grateful sacrifice of Noah; and, by confounding the languages at Babel, facilitated the planting of nations; it was in Asia that God established his once beloved people the Jews, and gave them the lively oracles of truth; it was here that his co-equal Son performed the wonderous work of our redemption; and here the Christian faith was miraculously propagated, and sealed with the blood of innumerable martyrs. Edifices also were reared, empires were founded, and the worship of the Most High was celebrated in this division of the globe, while Europe, Africa, and America, were uninhabited and unexplored.'

The introduction is likewise very laboured. We by no means approve of this plan of disguising simple truths under meretricious words and phrases; of this unnatural union of rhapsody aud philosophy:—the work was designed for the superficial, but the superficial cannot understand (however they may admire) such *very fine* writing as occurs in this publication.

The author makes an apology for not crouding his maps with names: there may be excess in most things: but the small maps of this Atlas could well have borne the burden of a few more provinces, rivers, and cities.

We do not mean, however, to condemn the present undertaking. The maps might have been made better, but we have seen worse; they will do some good; and in reading history, if better were not at hand, we should be very glad to make use of these. RW.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 12. *An Exhortation to the due Observance of the approaching* (late) *National Fast:* in an Address from a Minister to his Parishioners. By Edward Pearson, B.D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 8vo. 3d. Spragg.

Premising a distinction between political and party preaching, Mr. Pearson asserts that it strictly belongs to the clergyman's province to instruct his parishioners in all their political duties; one of which,

according to him, is 'to observe in a devout and solemn manner, *whether they see the propriety of the appointment or not*, every day of fasting and religious mourning, or of religious joy and thanksgiving, which the Sovereign in his pleasure may appoint.' The passage in italics savours too much of spiritual domination and tyranny, to be relished in the present age. People will think for themselves; and, as the Apostle Paul leaves Christians at liberty to *regard* a day or *not* to regard it, as they may see fit; they will not listen to Mr. Pearson when he enforces the observance of political fasts and festivals on them, 'whether they see the propriety of the appointment or not.' What is the merit of praying in opposition to a man's conviction, will, and inclination? Mo-y.

Art. 13. *The Evidence of Relation between our Present Existence and Future State*; with References to Dr. Paley's Natural Theology *. 8vo. 1s. Kerby.

Dr. Paley is here accused of leaving us, in his "Natural Theology," unsatisfied and uninformed with respect to the relation subsisting between our present life and that state which is to succeed it: but surely without sufficient cause, since he expressly maintains that the most reasonable view of the present life is that which regards it as a state of *probation*, preparatory to another in which all apparent disorders will be rectified. How consciousness is to be continued, or revived, is a question which Natural Theology cannot be expected to solve. D.°

Art. 14. *An humble Attempt to promote Union and Peace among Christians*, by inculcating the Principles of Christian Liberty. To which is added, an Appendix, I. Concerning the Jews. II. Concerning Deists. III. Containing Short Extracts. By R. Wright. 8vo. pp. 186. Boards. Vidler, &c.

The object proposed by Mr. Wright is not more noble in itself, than the means which he would employ to effect it are pure and honourable. "Peace, his dear delight," is attempted to be advanced among Christians by arguments addressed to the understanding and to the heart; by arguments which cannot fail to captivate the liberal and enlightened part of the human species. We have perused this little volume with abundant satisfaction; and if we had less experience of the difficulty of expanding the minds of bigots and enthusiasts, we might expect considerable success to attend the generous and strenuous efforts of this rational and amiable Christian: who asserts true principles of religious liberty, and deduces from them, with perspicuity and force, the most important practical conclusions. If his remarks should not be found to possess the merit of absolute novelty, they are very seasonable; and while bigotry and intolerance prevail in any shape or degree among Christians, it is proper that they should be exposed.

It appears that Mr. Wright was animated to this undertaking by observing the narrow and intolerant spirit which still exists in many religious societies, respecting the terms of Church fellowship

* See Article IV. of this Review.

and

and communion; and could he induce them to adopt his more liberal views, a great obstacle to Peace and Union among the followers of Christ would doubtless be removed. He observes: 'could leading men of different parties be brought to converse together with freedom and candor, to set a proper value on integrity and moral excellence in those who differ from them, and to inculcate the principles of Christian liberty to the utmost of their power in their particular connections, the prejudices which Christians entertain respecting each other would soon abate, and more union take place among them.'

Mr. W. commences with a particular enumeration of the rights of conscience, which are well stated and clearly established; and he concludes his first chapter with laying it down as one of the laws of this code, that 'every man has a right to respect and esteem in proportion to his integrity, the purity of his conduct, and his efforts for the good of others:' reminding us that 'sentiments and forms of religion are of no use, any farther than they inspire the mind with integrity, purify the heart, and influence the conduct.'—A chapter follows on *Intolerance*, in which its hateful nature, and baneful tendency are strongly reprobated; and in which it is remarked that 'it is only lawful to attempt the removal of error by the communication of knowledge, and the overthrow of superstition by the propagation of truth.' We have next some strictures on *Orthodoxy*, in which it is shrewdly observed that 'the different denominations of Christians seem to have parted divine truth among them, as the soldiers did the Lord's garments; but the evil has been that each denomination has been too apt to think itself in possession of the whole, and to consider those who differ from them as enemies to truth.' As Mr. Wright has no respect for reputed Orthodoxy, he treats the cry of *Heresy* with great contempt, and invites Christians of different sects or heresies to consider the points on which they are agreed.

In a chapter on *Christian Society*, the author says;

'It is to be hoped that in the present enlightened age Christians are rapidly increasing in wisdom and liberality—that Christian societies will expel bigotry and fanaticism from among them, and substitute rational views, manly piety, and a benevolent spirit in their place; and that many new societies will be formed and conducted on the free and liberal principles of the Gospel; but to accelerate these things it is necessary that those who have rational views of Christianity, and possess its liberal spirit, should become members of churches, or, where that is not practicable, form themselves into societies, that they may unite their exertions the more effectually in the promotion of every thing truly Christian.'

It is needless, perhaps, to add that Mr. W. contends for the exercise of *mutual forbearance* among Christians, as necessary to the preservation of the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace. He regards the present age as an Age of Inquiry; and he is persuaded that by free inquiry, united with liberality, Christianity will ultimately prevail over all opposition, and become universally triumphant. He is not less generous to Jews and Deists than he is to professed

believers; he pities the former, and in some measure pleads their cause; and as to the latter, he disapproves of their being treated with wrath and bitterness. Throughout, the sentiments of a generous mind are conspicuous; and if Mr. W. be not always speculatively right, we are confident that they who adopt his principles and rule of conduct will never be practically wrong.

Mo-y.

POLITICAL.

Art. 15. *The Speech of Lord Minto*, in the House of Peers, June 6th, 1803, on certain Resolutions of Censure on the Conduct of His Majesty's Ministers, moved by Earl Fitzwilliam. To which is added, His Lordship's Speech at a General Meeting of the County of Roxburgh, held at Jedburgh, 15th August 1803, on moving an Address to His Majesty: Ordered by the Meeting to be printed and circulated in the County. 8vo. pp. 199. 3s. 6d. sewed. Budd.

We have not perused any pamphlet in which the argument for the renewal of hostilities is discussed with more ability than in this Speech of Lord Minto. The whole question is stated with such ingenuity, fairness, and precision, that the conclusion is not only luminous but almost irresistible. His Lordship overwhelms the *Peace of Amiens* with his unqualified reprobation, giving it the title of an *ex-parte* war, which, while it took away from us our swords, left the enemy in full power to pursue their conquests and acquisitions. That our negociators at Amiens were guilty of a great oversight in not specifically restricting France from making any addition to her territory; and that our ministers were also blameable in proceeding to fulfil the terms of the treaty, especially in any material feature, (as in giving up the Cape of Good Hope,) notwithstanding the aggrandizement of the enemy, shamefully accomplished even before the wax affixed to the preliminary articles could be well cold; are points on which there is at present a very general agreement. Now if these premises be allowed, a justification of the war must involve in it some censure of Ministers.

Lord Minto is of opinion that the common ground of justification is too narrow: though he contends that the necessity of it is manifest, even if it stood on the single question of Malta. The position on which he founds his argument is that such changes have taken place subsequently to the treaty of Amiens, and changes which have been effected by the French Government, that the 10th article of that treaty is completely impracticable; and that now our only security is the annexation of Malta, in perpetuity, to his Britannic Majesty's dominions. A description of the importance of this fortress to us forms part of the argument; and, as we do not remember to have seen this subject any where so fully discussed, we shall make an extract from this part of the noble Lord's Speech. It has been often observed that this island, by its situation and the impregnable harbour of Valette, commands the channel between Sicily and the coast of Barbary; that it is the true key of the Levant, and the advanced work of those who would either defend or invade Egypt, Greece, or Syria: his Lordship adds:

'Malta

'Malta is indispensable as a naval post and arsenal. In our wars with France, it has always been found necessary to keep a considerable squadron in the Mediterranean. The naval forces of the enemy are thus divided, by cutting off the communication between their two principal ports. It has been necessary too, for the purpose of protecting our Mediterranean trade, and for annoying that of the enemy. The presence of a British fleet has, at the same time, been looked to by the once independent states whose coasts are washed by that sea, as a bulwark against the power of France, which could in those times threaten their coasts alone. The Alps and the Austrian power were their rampart on one side; the British fleet were their Alps on the other. But if it was expedient, in all wars, to maintain a naval superiority in the Mediterranean, it is become obviously indispensable in the present circumstances, since it is not only necessary to separate Brest from Toulon, and to keep the French squadrons fitted out in the Mediterranean, from participating in any enterprise beyond the limits of that sea; but the principal business of the war, and the projects of the enemy, lying now within those bounds themselves, a tenfold closer and more vigilant guard must be kept upon them. It may then be assumed, that we must, in all wars, maintain a powerful fleet in the Mediterranean. That measure requires, in its turn, the means of refitting and refreshing our fleet; and if we would not commit so great a concern to blind chance and fortune, those means must not be precarious, but certain.

'Your Lordships know, that there are few seas more boisterous than that of which we are speaking. The principal station of the Mediterranean fleet is off the harbour of Toulon. The Gulph of Lyons is proverbial for sudden and violent gales of wind. The ships being always near the land, are obliged to carry sail, either to avoid the shore, or to keep their station; and I believe it is not too much to say, that there is no station of the British navy, in which the squadrons are exposed to more frequent accidents and damage, from weather alone, than the Mediterranean. A port for shelter, and to refit, is as indispensable to our ships, as their masts and sails themselves. Certain and speedy access to a refitting port and arsenal, is still more necessary after battle, than after a gale of wind. If our squadron has an opportunity of engaging a French fleet, the event, I trust, would not be doubtful, and we may reckon securely on victory. But it must happen rarely, indeed, that even the conqueror should be in a condition to keep the field; such triumphs are not obtained without some loss, and some damage. If the victorious squadron cannot repair its damages, and resume its station, the victory must have all the consequences of a defeat. The British fleet may have captured a third of the enemy, may have sunk and destroyed another third, and may have sent the remainder beaten and crippled into Toulon. Yet, if the victorious fleet must quit the ground, must retire to a distant country with her trophies and her glory, and cannot soon renew the indispensable operations of that station, it is obvious that the vanquished and fugitive enemy, refitted in the shortest possible time, issues again from his port, and accomplishes, without opposition or obstacle, the very object for which the battle was

fought. Such an interval in the vigilance and exertion of the British fleet, may, in this manner, determine the success of that naval campaign. The result of that campaign may decide the issue of the war; and a victory may thus have cost nothing less than the empire itself, while the same action, with a port of our own under our lee, might have confounded the counsels, broken the power, and overthrown the ill-established, usurped dominion of the enemy.—

'Is it said, that we have prospered formerly without Malta? I answer, that a great change has, of late years, been made in every part of the policy of the nations of Europe by that fearful prodigy with which it has been visited, the French revolution. In former wars, we had little occasion for Malta, and none, as a refitting and refreshing port, because others were open to us. If we had no possession of our own in that sea; if we had not Port Mahon, in Minorca; St. Fiorenzo Bay, and the harbour of Ajaccio, in Corsica; Porto Ferrajo, in the island of Elba; if we were excluded from all the ports of Spain, as well as those of France; we had access to the Mole of Genoa, to Leghorn Roads, or to the Bay of Naples.

'In the present state of universal subjugation to France, there is not a port, a roadstead, a bay or creek, in the whole circumference of the Mediterranean, from which our fleets can depend on obtaining a bullock, a pound of biscuit, or a butt of water, when we really want them, much less the important succours of a friendly dock or arsenal.

'We can reckon securely on no aid, on no supplies, on no shelter, no, not the most necessary, except in those ports which are kept and protected by our own troops, and administered by our own servants and officers. Such is Malta; and the property which renders the advantages derived from that island inestimable, is, that they are not precarious. Malta is impregnable; it is our own in the centre of a hostile world, and may be surrendered by ourselves, but can never be taken from us by an enemy.'

From the particular case of Malta, Lord M. advances to a justification of the war on more general and enlarged principles. He deprecates the monstrous power and aggrandizement of France, as fatal to the tranquillity of Europe; he laments the destruction of the smaller states; and he condemns the fraudulent appointment of Bonaparte to the Presidency of the Italian Republic, as well as the tyranny and extensive domination which result from the subjugation of Switzerland. Yet he flatters himself that the enormous power of France may be reduced: but, should this be found impossible, he advises us to aim at a commensurate greatness as our only security against her. The indiscreet cession of the Cape of Good Hope is strongly condemned; it being 'one of the last posts on the Globe which we should have placed in the custody of our irreconcileable rival and enemy, the First Consul of France.' It is the opinion of Lord Minto that the result of the Congress at Lyons ought to have terminated the negociation at Amiens; since submission to such an insult could only lead to farther humiliation and certain calamity. As to the treaty there so inauspiciously concluded, he regards it as completely cancelled; and having now abandoned the system of imbecility

becility and weakness, and resumed those arms which were so inconsiderately laid aside, he hopes that we shall persevere in the contest till we can negociate in a manner becoming a great and independent nation, and till such a result can be obtained as is consistent with our honour and safety.

In the Speech at the Roxburgh county Meeting, Lord Minto stigmatizes the conduct of the First Consul, explains the nature of the contest into which his ambition has plunged us, exhorts his countrymen to a faithful discharge of the duties which they owe to their country, and animates them to a faithful and strenuous discharge of them by the most powerful motives. Mo-y.

Art. 16. *Address to the British Nation and Government, on the present State of Public Affairs:* intended to promote the Union and Defence of the Country. By a Friend to the Liberties and Happiness of Mankind. 8vo. 2s. Ogle, Edinburgh and London.

This writer observes that, in the late war, the objects of England, in conjunction with the other powers, were the subjugation of France and the change of its government; that in the present war the objects of France are the conquest of Britain and the destruction of its government. From the circumstance of France having been able, by the energy and alacrity of her movements, to defeat the combined efforts of her enemies, we derive a proof of what men can do when their all is at stake; and, in our present circumstances, this is a subject of instructive and animating contemplation.

By way of preface to the chief points of discussion, we are here presented with a portrait of the private and public character of Bonaparte, and with a view of the preferable effects of commerce compared with those of warlike ambition, in reply to an assertion made by Mr. Fox in the House of Commons, "that if blood must be shed, he had rather see it flow to gratify the ambition of an Alexander, than to fill the coffers of merchants." Passing to the present state of the country, the author considers us as suffering for the sins of a former administration; while France is as much the dupe of Bonaparte's ambition as we were formerly of that of Mr. Pitt. Yet, continues he, in spite of all the animosity and prejudice excited during the late contest, 'nothing can afford a more striking conviction of the sincere desire of the British nation and government to obtain and live in peace, than the many sacrifices they have made for this purpose.' France, on the other hand, instead of making cessions, has proceeded in the career of conquest, annexation, and robbery. Her conduct has been the reverse of ours, and the crime of insatiable ambition is peculiarly her own. Those irritating and hostile measures, by which our suspicions were raised and the hope of peace at last banished, are here enumerated: but, as they have been often mentioned in other pamphlets, a repetition of them is unnecessary. Our retention of Malta (the grand bone of contention) is vindicated on moral principles, on the particular circumstances of the case, and on the ground that the First Consul avowed his hostile designs against our Eastern possessions. Baffled, however, in his projects, the enemy now threatens us with the fate of Carthage: but he cannot put this threat in execution if

we are true to ourselves; and this writer, from surveying our present united state and military attitude, concludes that if an invasion be attempted there is little chance of its success. Indeed he is so thoroughly convinced of our superior advantages in this defensive war, that he invokes this hostile visit of Bonaparte as the most effectual means of ending the war, and of humbling his power.

In examining the state of political parties among us, this writer speaks in very degrading terms of Mr. Pitt's abilities, and accuses him of having given birth to that usurpation and tyranny which at present threaten our existence: but, though he is extremely partial to Mr. Fox, he does not wish to see him Minister. Mr. Addington is his favourite, and the vindication of his conduct in making the peace, and in his subsequent forbearance, is undertaken: but here the author, though perhaps better acquainted with the interests of trade, is not equal as a politician to Lord Minto. Towards the conclusion, he adverts to matters of political controversy foreign to the present occasion, and which ought now especially to be kept out of sight. Moy.

POETRY.

Art. 17. *Glasgow.* A Poem. By John Mayne. Crown 8vo. pp. 51. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Praise conferred by men of real genius and celebrity is not only gratifying, but on ingenuous minds it acts as a powerful stimulus. It was thus that the commendation which the outlines of the poem before us received from the late Dr. Geddes operated on the author; who, not satisfied with the original compliment, or with acknowleging it with a *lætus sum laudari à te laudato*, has endeavoured to render his poem more worthy of the approbation with which it was first honoured. The first sketch of it was published in December 1783 in the Glasgow Magazine, and was mentioned by Dr. Geddes in his *Epistle to the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland*, in flattering epithets; in consequence of which, Mr. Mayne has been induced to revise and extend it, and to bring it into the form in which it now appears.

This little production of the Scottish Muse certainly possesses much simplicity and beauty. Glasgow, as the seat of learning, commerce, &c. &c. with its surrounding scenery, is well delineated; and historical and local allusions are explained in a body of notes at the end: but to accommodate it to readers South of the Tweed, there should also have been a glossary of the Scottish terms.

That Glasgow is intitled to the poet's praise by its consequence, opulence, and beauty, will be evident from the following particulars contained in the notes:

'The population of the city and suburbs of Glasgow, according to the enumeration made in the month of June 1801, by virtue of the late Act of Parliament, amounted to 83,760. In 1772, according to Mr. Pennant, the inhabitants were computed at 40,000. Between the years 1611 and 1617, the number of persons in the city, agreeably to the parochial register for those years, amounted only to 7,645!

'At present it would be a difficult matter to convey an adequate idea of the increasing population and opulence of the city of Glasgow.

Since

Since the Peace, these have advanced, as far as can be judged from external appearances, with a rapidity unequalled in the annals of this, or, perhaps, of any other city in Europe.'—

'The principal street in Glasgow, running East and West, is nearly a mile and a half long, and is adorned throughout with handsome houses, which, for a certain length, are built over *arcades*, supported by pillars—the admiration of strangers, on account of the beauty they add to the City, and of the shelter they afford to the inhabitants who have occasion to be in the streets in wet weather.

'Building ground to the amount of nearly 100,000l. was disposed of lately in one week; some of it at the enormous rate of three guineas the square yard; or, at the rate of nearly 18,000l. per acre: and it is confidently affirmed, that, for the present season, 1803, building-contracts, to the amount of four hundred houses, have been entered into; in addition to the erection of a number of very large cotton spinning-mills, to be worked by steam-engines, in the immediate vicinity of the town.'

In a poem which has for its theme this flourishing city in the Northern part of the Empire, an apostrophe to *Industry* may be expected; and as this part may be most conveniently detached, we shall take is as a specimen, by which the reader will be enabled to estimate the merit of the whole:

'Hail, Industry! thou richest gem
That shines in Virtue's diadem!
While Indolence, wi' tatter'd hem,
Around her knee,
Sits, chitt'ring, like the wither'd stem
O' some boss tree!

'To thee we owe the flocks o' sheep
That glad Benlomond's * cloud-capt steep—
The pregnant mines that yield yon heap
O' massy coals—
And a' the tenants o' the deep,
Caught here in shoals!

'And a' the villas round, that gleam
Like spangles i' the sunny beam;
The bonny haughs that laughing seem,
Wi' plenty growing;
And a' the bleach-fields on ilk stream
Thro' Clydesdale flowing!

'Hence, Commerce spreads her sails to a'
The Indies and America:
Whatever makes a penny twa,
By wind or tide,
Is wafted to the Broomielaw,
On bonny Clyde!

'* Benlomond, the most western of the Grampian Hills, is 3,262 feet higher than the level of the sea.'

'Yet shou'd the best exertions fail,
And fickle Fortune turn the scale—
Should a' be lost in some hard gale,
Or wreckt on shore—
The Merchants'-House* makes a' things hale
As heretofore.

Wi' broken banes should Labour pine,
Or Indigence grow sick and dwine,
Th' Infirmary, wi' care divine,
Unfolds its treasure,
And turns their wormwood cup to wine—
Their pain to pleasure!

'O! blessings on them and their gear,
Wha thus the poor man's friends appear!
While mony a waefu' heart they cheer,
Revive and nourish—
Safe thro' Life's quicksands may they steer!
Like GLASGOW, flourish!'

Younger Reviewers might have selected the stanzas in praise of the 'strappan lasses, tight and clean,' for which Glasgow-Green is celebrated: but as our dancing days are over, it is prudent in us not to warm our imaginations by the contemplation of Scottish beauty. Mo.y.

Art. 18. *The Test of Union and Loyalty*, or the long-threatened French Invasion. Written and spoken by W. F. Sullivan, A. B. late of the Theatres-Royal, Windsor, Weymouth, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Poems written to be spoken, and which may have succeeded tolerably well in delivery, cannot always with good policy be committed to the press; where they must lose the advantages of elocution, and where the faults of the author cannot be concealed by the abilities of the actor. Mr. Sullivan's Address, being adapted to the circumstances of the times, and being in perfect unison with the loyal feelings and patriotic enthusiasm of the people, has been admired, though its merit as a poetic and correct composition is not considerable: *e. g.*

'All *local* prejudice thrown by, forgot—
"*Tria juncta in uno*," in true lover's knot,
Link'd in one int'rest, in affection warm
"*Quis separabit?*" shall our motto form!'
'In vain proud *Gallia* all her host opposes
The battle's now—"*Pro aris et pro focis.*'

Goodness of intention must sometimes atone for faults in execution. D.9

'* The Merchants'-House is one of the many well-endowed charitable institutions, for which Glasgow is remarkable. From its peculiar funds, decayed members, their widows, and families, are provided for by annual pensions, at their own houses, in proportion to the rank which they held in society.'

Art. 19. *Four Heroic Epistles of Ovid;* translated into English Verse. Crown 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Dwyer. 1803.

The present selection is offered as a specimen of an intended version of the *Epistolæ Heroïdum*. If the sense of the original be in general correctly rendered, but we apprehend that much polishing would be required, to render this author's lines adequate representations of those of the Roman Bard. The translator's faults consist chiefly in careless and sometimes vulgar expressions, which might have been avoided by more attention. For example:

P. 18. 'My flooded cheeks my furious nails *infest*.'

P. 23. 'But he his prize a bold and am'rous youth
Restor'd a virgin, *likely tale forsooth!*'

P. 27. '*More last* commands have I of import dear.'

This line reminds us of Addison's story of "more last words" of Mr. Baxter.

In p. 32, we observe a passage completely obscured by the want of the relative:

'Let Menelaus stung with jealous pain,
Her Paris won by force, by force regain,'—

The meaning is her, *whom* Paris won.—

We shall now give a sample of the general style of this version:

'Thus thy Penelope, Ulysses, greets,
Thus to return, her lingering lord, intreats:
Stay not to answer; bane of every joy
To Grecian maids, low lies detested Troy,
Troy, and old Priam and his conquered host,
Scarce worth the labours and the tears they cost.
O had the adulterer in the deep been laid,
Ere his proud fleet for Lacedemon made!
Mine had not prov'd a cold forsaken bed.
Nor had I tedious days in sorrow led,
Nor while I sought to waste the night unblest,
The pendent web my widow'd hands opprest.
How oft my fears beyond the truth would rove!
How full of fond solicitude is love!
At thee I thought the fiercest foe must aim,
And turn'd all pale at Hector's hated name;
Hector, they said, Antilochus had slain,
Then caus'd Antilochus my coward pain;
When bled Patroclus arm'd in borrow'd mail,
Fast flowed my tears that stratagem should fail;
The Lycian spear Tlepolemus bedew'd,
Thy fate, Tlepolemus, my grief renew'd:
Till every Grecian in the battle slain,
Chill'd my fond bosom as the icy plain:
But to chaste love some god protection gives,
Troy lies in ashes, and my husband lives.
The Greeks return, at blazing altars bend,
Barbaric spoils to Grecian gods suspend;

Maids

Maids for their lovers sav'd their offerings bring,
Troy's fates subdued by theirs the lovers sing,
Old men admire, and trembling girls grow pale,
While the fond wife devours the husband's tale.
One, on the table, draws the battle's line,
And Troy, all Troy describes in drops of wine.
'Here Simoïs flow'd, Segeum's land was here,
Here Priam's palace seen its head to rear;
This was the ground the wise Ulysses chose,
Thy proud pavilion there, Achilles, rose,
There, where uncurb'd, the fiery coursers drew.
The mangled Hector, trembling as they flew.'—

If this attempt is to be pursued, we must add our earnest recommendation of the *limæ labor* to the translator. Fer.

FAST-DAY SERMONS, *19th October* 1803.

Art. 20. *David's Choice; or, successful Invasion a sorer Evil than Pestilence or Famine.* By J. Lettice, D.D. Vicar of Peasemarsh in Sussex. 4to. 1s. 6d. Clarke.

A great sameness always pervades sermons of this description; and at present, the monotony is unparalleled. If this sameness, however, be a source of dulness to us as reviewers, it is consolatory to us as lovers of our country; because, in finding that we have no differences of opinion to notice, we have the pleasure of observing that the Clergy of all denominations are animated by the same laudable spirit. Dr. Lettice first paints the vast magnitude of the evil with which we are threatened, and then alarms our consciences with the recollection of some of those national sins by which we may have provoked the Almighty. He particularly specifies our presumptuous confidence, pride, love of pleasure, and religious indifference. Mo.y.

Art. 21. Preached in the Cathedral of Peterborough. By the Rev. Spencer Madan, A. M. Prebendary of that Cathedral. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees.

After having glanced to the case of the Jews as described in the text (Hab. iii. 2.), the preacher invites us to consider *our own case* and *to learn our own lesson.* We are cautioned against cherishing any hope from the idea that our enemies are more wicked than ourselves, and are charged to examine the immoral features of our own character, and to correct our own deformitities; if we wish that the Ruler of Nations, would, with respect to us, "in the midst of wrath remember mercy." Mr. Madan describes our duty as Christians and Britons in this our *vital struggle.* D.o.

Art. 22. *Causes of the Inefficacy of Fasts:*—Preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Dr. Gardiner laments the shortness of the interval between the late *thanksgiving* for peace and the *fast* on the renewal of war. Leaving to others the particular detail of our *political,* he professes to undertake the description of our *moral* and *religious* situation; whence reasons are deduced to shew why God does not regard our ceremony

of Fasting. The inference is that National Reformation is necessary to insure national prosperity.

Art. 23. Preached at the Parish Church at Cheshunt St. Mary, Herts. By the Rev. W. A. Armstrong. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Far from urging any claim to novelty, Mr. Armstrong is aware that his sermon contains only those sentiments which every Christian and Briton must feel: he acquitted himself, however, to the satisfaction of his parishioners; and his readers must allow him praise sufficient to gratify his moderate expectations.

Art. 24. *What has the Poor Man to lose in the Event of a successful Invasion?*—Preached in the Parish Church of Warrington. By Johnson Grant, A. B. 8vo. 4d. Vernor and Hood.

We are prepared by this title for a political rather than a religious discussion. Mr. Grant bids his hearers to recollect, from the woeful experience of Europe, that they have nothing to expect from the Invaders but plunder, violence, and destruction; that, in the event of our subjugation by the foe, the rich would be robbed, and the poor made "hewers of wood and drawers of water;" and in course that it is the interest of both to make a most vigorous resistance.

Art. 25. *British Liberty considered with respect to its Origin, its Progress, and its Defence:*—Preached at the Chapel in Hanover Street. By Nathaniel Philipps, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

The history of British Liberty, and the sketch of the British Constitution, here given, (though not faultless,) are sufficiently correct to impress our hearts with gratitude for the distinguished blessings which we enjoy, and to animate us with an enthusiastic fortitude in their defence. Dr. P. invites all parties to make a common cause in this grand contest, and to resist the invader of that country which we must love as the abode of our ancestors, as our own birth-place, and as the seat of liberty and law.

Art. 26. *Confidence in God, the Bulwark of a Nation;—Christianity the solid Foundation of Patriotism and Courage.*—Delivered at the Dissenters' Chapel, Brentford-Butts. By N. T. Heineken. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Mr. Heineken informs his readers that, on preceding occasions, he had objected to the observance of *war fasts*, but that he now considers himself as imperiously required to deviate from his usual line of conduct. His patriotism is vivid and animating; and his exhortations are calculated to rouse all the energies of the mind, and to prepare us for every difficulty and sacrifice which the assertion of our liberty and independence may require. Among national deliverances, he particularly recounts the history of the Spanish Armada as bearing a striking resemblance to the circumstances of the present time; subjoining a pious wish that the sequel of the present conflict may be also similar. He concludes with specifying the various ways in which Christians, in seasons of public danger, may contribute to the general welfare.

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Art. 27. *The Duty of every Briton at this perilous Moment:*—Preached at Worship-street. To which is added an Account of the Destruction of the Spanish Armada; being the greatest Force ever brought together for the Invasion of this Country. By John Evans, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

After having so lately congratulated ourselves on the return of peace, why are we roused by the sound of the trumpet and the clangor of arms? Mr. Evans replies, "*An Enemy has done this!*" an enemy who wishes to immolate us on the altar of his ambition. The preacher's feelings towards such an enemy are in perfect unison with those of all his countrymen, and he offers such admonitions as are calculated to excite our heroism, and to assist us in the discharge of our duty in the awful circumstances in which we are placed. Like the preceding writer, he bids us mark the conduct of our ancestors at the time when the Spanish Armada threatened our coasts, and be of good courage. On our present unanimity he reflects with comfort, recollecting the well-known fable of the Bundle of Rods. Mo-y.

Art. 28. Preached at Chatham Church. By the Rev. James Lynn, M. A. 4to. 2s. Wilkie.

Mr. Lynn is alive to the dreadful consequences which would result from the success of the enemy, and describes them with the laudable view of animating our courage and exertions: but with alarm he blends no inconsiderable portion of hope. 'If God,' says he, 'spared the profligate Ninevites, because they repented at the preaching of Jonah, will he not, think ye, look with an eye of pity on us, who have "a greater than Jonah" on our side?' With this encouraging representation, however, other parts of his discourse do not exactly accord. In conclusion, he asks, 'if the menaces of an upstart mortal are able to call forth our circumspection and energy, how is it that we are not quickened to a proper sense of our everlasting danger?'

The language and argumentation of this sermon are not very correct. Do

Art. 29. *The Duty of Christians to seek the Peace of the Country in which they dwell.* By Richard Wright. 8vo. 1s. Vidler.

It would be a misapplication of a fast-day to waste it in a retrospection of the political measures which have brought us into our present situation, as a nation: 'We are in it,' says this preacher, 'and the great object should be for every one to do what he can to extricate us from our present difficulties.'

The advice here given is of a religious kind, and it is enforced by motives arising from a consideration of the peculiar advantages and blessings which, as Britons, we enjoy. Do.

Other SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 30. *Britain's Defence:*—Preached Aug. 21, 1803, in the Protestant Dissenting Meeting-House, Battersea. By Joseph Hughes, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Button.

Averse from the hostile system, Mr. Hughes laments the unsheathing of the sword, and would have even soothed and supplicated in order to maintain peace: but, if war be unavoidable, if the aim

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of the enemy be to devastate and enslave Britain, he would then address his armed countrymen in the language of David, "Be of good courage and play the men, &c." To exertions, however, in the tented field or on the briny wave, he recommends us to unite the advantages of social prayer, and to cherish the sentiments and habits of genuine devotion. He views with serious apprehension the passion for arms which is now generally excited, and represents the Defence of Britain as consisting not in the pride of martial array, but in putting on the armour of Christian piety. 'Were we,' says he, "a holy nation," the violence of the enemy would evaporate in gasconade.' On this score, how slender are our hopes! yet he does not fail to cheer up his countrymen. Mo-y.

Art. 31. *The Strength of Britain:*—Preached July 31, 1803. 8vo Pamphlet. Printed by Pote and Williams, Eton.

Neither the name of the preacher of this discourse, nor the place at which it was delivered, is mentioned: but the sentiments contained in it are full of loyalty and patriotic zeal, and are in unison with the manly feelings of the British Nation. Do

Art. 32. *Piety and Courage:*—Preached in Portland Chapel, 17th July, 1803. By the Rev. John Crofts, A.M. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

With a humble dependence on divine assistance, we are here exhorted to oppose the modern Sennacherib, who is raising his armies to make *this land of Canaan* the scene of blood and desolation; and as the existence of our dearest and most invaluable rights is now at stake, the preacher blows his trumpet in Zion to rouse us with fortitude to prepare for the combat. Do

Art. 33. *Good Effects of an United Trust in an Arm of Flesh and Arm of the Lord:*— Preached at Cuxton, Kent, July 31, 1803. By the Rev. Charles Moore, M.A. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The object of this discourse is the same with the preceding. It requires us to make the most vigorous preparations against the enemy, and in prayer to implore the Almighty to insure our success by fighting for us. Do

Art. 34. *The Sword of the Lord and of Gideon:*—Preached in the Parish Church of Epsom, Surrey. By the Rev. Robert Gutch, A.B. 8vo. 1s. Nichols.

Mr. Gutch holds up the conduct of France to the detestation of the Universe, and concurs with "the Multitude of the preachers" in commending the wisdom of the Government, and the patriotic union of the people, in averting the storm with which she is preparing to desolate our land. Do

Art. 35. *National Defence:*—Preached in the Parish Churches of Wainfleet, All Saints, and Thorpe, in the County of Lincoln, 7th August, 1803, (the Day on which "Important Considerations for the People of this Kingdom" were distributed amongst the Inhabitants of the above-named Parishes). By the Rev. Peter Bulmer, A.B. 8vo. 6d. Spragg.

Art.

Art. 36. *In Defence of the Country:*—Delivered in the Parish Church of Clewer, Berks, Aug. 7, and before the Troops in Garrison, at Windsor, Aug. 14, 1803. By the Rev. M. H. Luscombe, A.B. 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

These two discourses are similar in their representations and tendency to the sermon of Mr. Gutch. The doctrine inculcated is that 'on our Unanimity rests our Security.' D.°

Art. 37. Preached at the Parish Church of Gillingham in Kent, July 31, 1803, on Occasion of the United Exertions of his Subjects, being called forth by His Majesty against the threatened Invasion. By William Chafy, M. A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

An exhortation to universal philanthropy, brotherly love, religion, and loyalty, as the surest means of preserving our independence and prosperity. D.°

Art. 38. *The Duty of defending our Country:*—Preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Peter, Exeter, Aug. 19, 1803. By the Rev. Edward Drewe, LL.B. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

Though *the Love of our Country* be not particularly inculcated in the Gospel, we are justified, says Mr. Drewe, by the authority of our Saviour's example, in placing it in the class of Christian virtues. Patriotism, he observes, was not made the theme of preaching either by Christ or his Apostles; because the miserable state of the world, with the renewal of which we are now threatened, left no man a country, all being slaves to Roman tyranny. We are referred to the O. T. for sentiments of patriotic affection, and for lessons of patriotic duty, especially in the hour of our country's danger; which, by a nervous strain of eloquence, the preacher must have succeeded in impressing on the minds of his hearers. The importance of energy, unanimity, and zeal, is so forcibly stated, and the consequences which must result from our falling a prey to the enemy are so pathetically described, that the reader cannot resist the conviction of its being better to die fighting for our country than to survive its independence. D.°

Art. 39. *God and our Country:*—Preached at the Parish Church of Geggleswich, in Craven, Aug. 14; also at Trinity Church, Leeds, Aug. 21, 1803. By Rowland Ingram, B. D. 8vo. 4d. Hatchard.

From a consideration of the existence and administration of God, Mr. Ingram advances to a discussion of the duties of rational and moral agents under that administration. His view of the subject, though concise, is judicious: he enumerates our national blessings as so many charges which we are to defend and improve; and he urges us, with grateful and pious sentiments to the Giver of all public as well as private mercies, to shew ourselves worthy of British privileges by such an heroic conduct in times of national peril as, with God's blessing, must appal and vanquish our adversaries. D.°

Art. 40. *The Aspect of the Times examined, and the Duties of Christians described:*—Preached at Stepney-Meeting, Aug. 14, 1803. By George Ford. 8vo. 1s. Williams.

Mr. Ford's glance at the State of the Times embraces moral more than political considerations. Professing to contemplate events through the medium of *sanctified* reason, their tendency either to retard or to advance the Gospel is examined, and the present condition of

of the Church, of the world, and of our own country, is urged as constituting so many arguments for repentance and Christian reformation of manners. Do

Art. 41. *Courage and Union in a Time of National Danger:*—Preached Oct. 9, 1803, at the Unitarian Chapel, Essex-Street. By the Rev. Jeremiah Joyce. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

There is no divine, however orthodox, nor any subject, however loyal, who surpasses Mr. Joyce in the ardour of patriotism on the present awful occasion. Like a second Nehemiah, (text Neh. vi. 11.) he evinces a zeal and a magnanimity which prove him to be a true lover of his country. Bonaparte has accomplished one object which he never intended, and which we never expected; he has made us completely unanimous; and he has proved moreover that the disaffection, of which alarmists talked so loudly, was more a phantom than a reality. Should the present struggle be crowned with success, which we flatter ourselves it will, we hope that the establishment of a fact so important will not be overlooked by the Government. Do

Art. 42. *Obedience to Government, Reverence to the Constitution, and Resistance to Bonaparte:*—Preached at Bury St. Edmunds, before the Right Hon. Lord Chief Baron Macdonald and the Hon. Mr. Baron Hotham, at the Assizes held there July 29, 1803. By the Rev. Charles Edward Stewart, A. M., Chaplain to the Sheriff. Published at the Request of the Sheriff and the Grand Jury. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bickerstaff.

After having illustrated the necessity of civil government for the security of social enjoyment, and of religion for that of civil government, Mr. Stewart pronounces an eulogium on the religion and constitution of our country as the best under heaven; and he concludes with an exhortation to defend both against the threatening enemy. Do

Art. 43. Preached at the Archidiaconal Visitations of the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Northumberland, held May 17th, 18th, 19th, and 20th, 1803; and published at their Request. By Robert Thorp, D. D., Archdeacon of Northumberland. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

This discourse, from 1 Tim. iv. 16., is divided into two parts, the first of which respects the conduct, and the second the preaching of the clergy. The life of a clergyman, Dr. Thorp observes, should be a life of piety, seriousness, reflection, and study, to which he is allowed occasionally to add innocent amusement and recreation. The doctrine to which the clergy are required *to take heed* is 'the form of sound words delivered in the scriptures, and committed to the guardianship of the church, in the articles, liturgy, and homilies.'

Dr. T. concludes with inculcating the exercise of *meekness of wisdom*, benevolence, and forbearance, towards all who differ in opinion from the Establishment. Do

Art. 44. Preached in the Parish Church of St. Nicholas in Deptford the 6th of June 1803, before the Hon. Corporation of Trinity Brethren. By the Rev. Gerrard Andrews, A. M. Rector of St. James's Westminster, and of Mickleham in Surrey. 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

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To n enumeration of our national blessings as exempted from earthquakes, pestilence, famine, and the horrors of war, Mr. Andrews subjoins a view of those benefits which we derive from navigation, the "good estate, wholesome government, maintenance, and increase" of which is the object of the Corporation of the Trinity Brethren; who are complimented by the preacher for their loyalty, skill, and intrepidity. D.º

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*To the* MONTHLY REVIEWERS:

'WHILE the sagacious John Wagstaffe of Norwich*, a member of the society 'of friends,' (by inheritance!) has discovered in *Fragments*, (Rev. Sept. p. 33.) that their author is *not* a member, ye are perhaps hardly chargeable with any want of acumen, in the fact escaping your notice.

'The fact is that while there are many members of the associations of the 'friends' who set at nought all the peculiarities of Quakers, and are not at all regarded as Quakers by Society at large, till they declare themselves such, exciting the remark 'I should not have known it if he had not told me;' there are Quakers who are, every where, recognised as such, except in the associations.

'Verily, the remark applies to many zealous Non-associated Quakers which I heard a member of the society of 'friends' apply to an individual who had sought to be associated.—'Uncle! I have been thinking that the reason why John is not received by our friends is this—they are afraid of him.—Like as when Big Sam [late porter at Carlton House] first went to enlist, they would not take him. What! said the officers; if we let him into the ranks, he will spoil the appearance of our grenadiers, who will all look diminutive beside him.—John is too much the Quaker for our Society.'—In Ireland, particularly, there are many who are, by far, too much Quakers for the Yearly Meeting of London.

'Salisbury Square, 1, xj, 1803.' J. W.'

We must decline any farther communication on this subject.

In acknowlegement of the very polite letter from the author of "Three Discourses to the Library Society at Chichester," (see Rev. for last month,) we have to observe that we endeavoured to state correctly the general *impression* made by his essay on taste; and that to have reported his reasons for his opinion, together with ours for differing from him, would have led us farther than we were able to accompany him. It is also a subject on which it is much easier to differ than to decide, for where is the standard of taste, except the self-erected standard in every man's mind?—With regard to the quotation from Lucretius, the author says that the passage from Thomson which we suggested 'would not have suited his purpose on that occasion, which was merely to adduce forms of poetical expression for a sentence in prose of *general import*, to which the lines from Thomson are too *particular* to be applicable.' It still appears to us, however, that so beautiful an amplification, as that which these lines furnish, might with propriety have been introduced. S.R.

☞ In the last Rev. p. 143. l. 9. for 'cautious,' r. *cautions*. P. 158. l. 28. after 'and,' insert *with*. P. 215. l. 25. after 'gratitude,' dele *of*.

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* See CORRESPONDENCE in M. R. for October.

Errors, p. 287, 293, 295, 329.